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LONDON SCHOOL OF HYGIENE
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CONTENTS.

VOL. XXX.—YEAR 1867.

March, 1867.

	PAGE
On Strikes and Combinations, with Reference to Wages and the Conditions of Labour. By JACOB WALEY, M.A.	1—20
On Prison Discipline and Statistics in Lower Bengal. By FREDERIC J. MOUAT, M.D., F.R.C.S., Surgeon-Major Bengal Army, Inspector-General of Gaols in the Lower Provinces of the Bengal Presidency, Fellow and Member of the Senate of the University of Calcutta, &c., &c., &c.	21—57
Free Trade in Banking. By COLONEL W. H. SYKES, M.P., F.R.S., &c.	58—67
On the Unequal Proportion between the Male and Female Population of some Manufacturing and other Towns. By the REV. A. W. WORTHINGTON, B.A.	68—79
On the Progress of Elementary Education. By WILLIAM LUCAS SARGANT, Author of "Social Innovators and their Schemes," "Science of Social Opulence," &c.	80—137
Miscellanea :—General Results of the Commercial and Financial History of 1866.—The Estimated Corn-Yield of England.—Statistics of the Insane Poor of Great Britain.—The French and English Budgets.—Workhouse Death-rate in Childbirth.—The Actual State of American Finance	138—177
Quarterly Returns, October, November, December, 1866.....	178—210

June, 1867.

PAGE

Report of the Council, presented at the Thirty-Third Anniversary Meeting of the Statistical Society, held 15th March, 1867; with the Proceedings of that Meeting.....	211—215
On the Military Conscription of France. By MAJOR-GENERAL BALFOUR, C.B., Royal Artillery	216—292
On the Mortality of London Hospitals: and Incidentally on the Deaths in the Prisons and Public Institutions of the Metropolis. By WILLIAM A. GUY, M.B., F.R.S., Professor of Forensic Medicine, King's College, London; Physician to King's College Hospital, &c.	293—322
Central Statistical Commission of Austria; Analysis of Report for 1866. By W. THOMAS NEWMARCH, Associate of King's College, London, and A.A., Oxon	323—331
Miscellanea:—Statistics of the Clearing House.—Defective Registration of Births and Deaths in England.—The Insane Poor of Great Britain and Ireland.—Dangers and Decay of the French Race.—The British Leather Trade.....	332—345
Quarterly Returns, January, February, March, 1867	346—373

September, 1867.

On the Judicial Statistics of England and Wales, with Special Reference to the Recent Returns relating to Crime. By JAMES T. HAMMICK, of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-Law, Member of the Council of the Statistical Society, &c.	375—426
On the Statistics of Civil Procedure in English Courts of Law. By WILLIAM JOHN BOVILL, Esq., Barrister-at-Law	427—453
Miscellanea:—Dr. John Watts' "Catechism of Wages and Capital."—Movement of the Population in France during 1864.—Foreign Trade Unions	454—461
Quarterly Returns, April, May, June, 1867	462—493

December, 1867.

	PAGE
Opening Address of the President of Section F (Economic Science and Statistics), of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, at the Thirty-Seventh Meeting, at Dundee, September, 1867. By M. E. GRANT-DUFF, M.P.	495—501
On Public Instruction in Turkey. By HYDE CLARKE, Esq., F.S.S., Cotton Commissioner in Turkey.....	502—534
Statistics of Sums Given by Native Gentry in India for Charitable and Educational Institutions and for Works of Public Utility. By COLONEL W. H. SYKES, M.P., F.R.S.	535—547
On Arbitration in the Hosiery Trades of the Midland Counties. By E. RENALS, Esq., of the "Daily Express," Nottingham	548—556
On the Funds Available for Developing the Machinery of Education in England. By J. E. THOROLD ROGERS, M.A., sometime Professor of Political Economy in the University of Oxford, and Tooke Professor of Economic Science and Statistics, King's College, London	557—561
Thirty-Seventh Meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, held at Dundee, 4th—11th September, 1867.—Section F, Economic Science and Statistics..	562, 563
Proceedings of the Statistical Society, Session 1866-67	564, 565
Miscellanea:—Statistics of the Papal States.—Irish Emigration and Irish Agriculture.—Shipwrecks.—The Cotton Trade with France.—Prussian Agriculture.—The New York Clearing House	566—577
Quarterly Returns, July, August, September, 1867	578—604
INDEX to vol. xxx (1867)	605—620

JOURNAL OF THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY,

MARCH, 1867.

On STRIKES and COMBINATIONS, with REFERENCE to WAGES and the CONDITIONS of LABOUR. By JACOB WALEY, M.A.

[Read before the Statistical Society, December, 1866.]

I.

IN undertaking to read to this Society a paper on strikes and combinations, with reference to wages and the conditions of labour, I cannot lay claim to special advantages entitling me to treat this subject with anything like authority. I am not an employer, nor familiar or in habitual communication either with employers or workmen. The observations I shall have to make are suggested by publications which are equally accessible to everybody. My object will be to catch some of the salient points in the recent literature on this subject, to endeavour by this means to seize and present the question in its most modern aspect, and insist on those considerations which for the present are the most momentous, and which should be the most steadily borne in mind in speculating as to the future.

II.

For practical purposes the studies of the inquirer on this subject may commence with the repeal of the combination laws, effected under the auspices of the late Mr. Joseph Hume, in the year 1824. The 5th of George IV, cap. 95, by which the combination laws were repealed, was itself repealed, but in substance re-enacted, with some variations, by the 6th of George IV, cap. 129. By the last-mentioned Act all the statutes against combinations of workmen were repealed. The attempt by violence, threats, or intimidation, or by molesting or obstructing another, to compel a workman to quit his employment or prevent him from accepting employment; to force any person to join any association, or to pay any fine for not belonging to the association, or not complying with its rules; or to force a manufacturer or other person in business to make any alteration in the mode of carrying on his business, or to limit the number of his apprentices or journeymen, was made punishable by imprisonment with or without hard labour for a term not exceeding

three months. But meetings of workmen for fixing the rate of wages or hours of labour applicable to their own work, and also meetings of masters for fixing the rate of wages to be paid or the hours of labour to be required by them, are legalised. The meetings of workmen expressly protected by this Act were those only which sought to fix their own wages or hours of labour; but by the 22nd of Victoria, cap. 34, no one (whether in actual employment or not) entering into any agreement with workmen or others for the purpose of fixing the rate of wages or hours of labour, or endeavouring, without threats or intimidation, to persuade others to cease or abstain from working, in order to obtain the agreed rate of wages or hours of labour, is for that reason to come under the operation of the penal clauses of the former Act, or to be subject to prosecution for conspiracy.

III.

It may be worth while also adverting to the progress of legislation in France as to combinations among workmen. Combinations, both among employers and workmen, were rendered penal by a law of the 22nd Germinal, An XI (12th April, 1803), which was transferred, with some alteration, to the penal code. It forbade combinations among employers tending to compel unjustly and improperly a lowering of wages under pain of imprisonment of from six days to one month, and a fine from 200 to 3,000 frs. Combinations of workmen for the purpose of simultaneous stoppage of work, of preventing work in a manufactory, hindering any from going to work or from remaining after certain hours, or in general for the purpose of suspending, hindering, or raising the price of labour, were punishable by imprisonment of from one to three weeks, the instigators being punishable by imprisonment of from two to five years. These laws have been repealed by the law of 25th May, 1864, which permits combinations among workmen for raising wages when carried on without violence or intimidation. As, however, unauthorised meetings of above twenty persons are unlawful in France, the power of combination is evidently in practice much impeded by the restriction on the right of meeting.

IV.

For the study of recent strikes and the investigation of the principles applicable to the subject, there exists a considerable quantity of available material. A committee of the House of Commons sat in the year 1838 to inquire into the operation of Mr. Hume's Act repealing the combination laws. The substance of the report of this committee and the evidence taken before it (which were on the whole favourable to the policy of repealing the Combination Acts) is abstracted in a paper forming part of the Report of

the Committee on Trades Societies, presented at the fourth annual meeting of the Social Science Association, held at Glasgow in the year 1860.

The great strikes of the amalgamated engineers in 1851 and of the Preston operatives in 1853, besides giving rise to a large amount of newspaper discussion, are recorded in a more durable form in the evidence taken before the Committee of the House of Commons, which sat in the year 1856 to inquire into the expediency of establishing equitable courts of conciliation for the adjustment of differences between masters and operatives, and in the appendix to their report; and more fully in papers forming part of the report presented to the Social Science Association in 1860, and already referred to. The Preston strike led to a conference on strikes and lock-outs, which was held at the house of the Society of Arts, by invitation from that society, on the 30th of January, 1854, under the presidency of Lord Ebury, then Lord Robert Grosvenor. The proceedings at this conference are reported in a supplement to the Society's Journal of 3rd February, 1854. The propositions into which the subject was divided for the purpose of discussion were well-chosen and suggestive, but the discussion itself was not of a very instructive character. In the same year, 1854, was published the able essay of Mr. Morrison on the relations between capital and labour, which contains a chapter on combinations and strikes. In this work, and yet more in an article in the "Edinburgh Review" for July, 1854, the rigid economical doctrine condemning strikes without condition or qualification is strenuously maintained. The strike of the building trade in London, in the years 1859 and 1860, will be in general recollection. A narrative of this strike is to be found in the report made to the Social Science Association in 1860, to which reference has already been made. This report, coming from men of ability, honesty, and diligence, may be thought to be somewhat coloured, however unintentionally, by a prepossession in favour of the cause of the workmen; still it appears to me to contain on the whole the fullest and most valuable, as well as the most interesting, materials for the study of the subject of strikes and combinations. It brings strongly forward the close connexion and reciprocal influence of strikes and trades unions, a matter which may be said to be daily acquiring fresh importance. The Transactions of the Social Science Association for 1860 contain a paper by Mr. Edmond Potter, in which the tendencies of trades unions are vigorously assailed. In the same year, 1860, another Parliamentary committee sat on the subject of courts of conciliation, and made its report, in the appendix to which will be found a bill proposed to be enacted by Parliament. The year 1861 brought with it a partial renewal of the building strikes, a narrative of which was contributed by Mr. Frederic Harrison

to the volume of "Social Science Transactions" for 1862, which also contains an interesting paper by Mr. Ludlow on the investigation of trade differences, and the relative credit due to the testimony of the employer and the employed, and by Mr. Godfrey Lushington on the subject of apprenticeship. Dr. Watts' paper on strikes, read at the British Association in 1861, and his "History of a Mistake, "being a tale of the Colne Strike in 1860-61," which are now reprinted in a small pamphlet, contain a vigorous argument addressed to the practical understanding against the impolicy of strikes. The history of the most recent strikes must, as far as I am aware, be sought in the newspapers of the day; but, as contributions to the philosophy of the subject, I must mention Professor Fawcett's "Economic Position of the British Labourer," published in the autumn of 1865, where there is a chapter on trades unions and strikes, which, without departing from the strict principles of political economy, admits that there are circumstances in which strikes may be defensible, and even necessary, and the powerful article of Mr. Frederic Harrison in the "Fortnightly Review" for November, 1865, "On the Good and Evil of Trades Unionism," in which, with "thoughts that breathe and words that burn," the matter is argued from the workmen's point of view. I should also notice the article by the same author in the "Fortnightly Review" for May, 1865, on the iron masters' trade union, which contains a powerful argument against lock-outs, and especially against the reasoning which would place them on a parity with strikes; and an article in the "Fortnightly Review" for August, 1865, by Mr. Hopper, which, under the title of "An Iron Master's View of "Strikes," takes a much less favourable view of their motives and issues. The author gives a brief summary of the history of the principal strikes since 1824, and adopts the conclusion that "never "in any case has an extensive strike resulted in the advance of "wages." There is, no doubt, very much in print upon this subject with which I am unacquainted; but I have indicated the principal sources from which my own knowledge is derived, and which have been resorted to for the purpose of the following observations.

V.

I propose, first, to consider the question whether strikes are in any cases economically justifiable; secondly, to review the circumstances of some recent strikes, and the inferences which they authorise; thirdly, to make some observations on the remedial measures which have been suggested for obviating or diminishing the frequency of strikes; lastly, to add a few general observations.

The question whether a strike is in any case economically justifiable must, of course, be answered in the negative, if it is considered

that, in the nature of things and under the operation of irreversible economic laws, the labourer is incapable of obtaining, by means of a strike, any important advantage, or, at all events, any advantage which cannot more readily and beneficially be obtained by less violent means. On this question, whether a strike in any branch of industry can in any case be productive of solid and permanent benefit to the workmen in that branch, or to any considerable number of them, the greatest possible differences of opinion have prevailed and still prevail.

Frequently we find it asserted that strikes must inevitably fail; that, as attempts to set aside the great law of supply and demand, or to oppose the irresistible force of the employer, they must necessarily be defeated. Thus, Lord Cranworth, in the letter addressed to the late Lord Ashburton, in 1852, in which he declined to arbitrate between the amalgamated engineers and their employers, expressed himself as follows: "The misfortune is that, in the game (so to say) "of combination, the workmen always eventually fail." I have already quoted the assertion of Mr. Hopper in the "Fortnightly Review" that, "never in any case has an extensive strike resulted "in the advance of wages;" and this is the view which we are most accustomed to see taken in the newspapers. On the other hand, the report made in 1860 to the Social Science Association (to which I have several times referred), states that "the committee have not "found that the constant assertion that strikes are scarcely ever "successful is at all borne out by experience;" and Mr. Harrison, in his article in the "Fortnightly Review" for November, 1865, collects from the same volume a number of examples of successful strikes.

VI.

In investigating the principles applicable to this subject, it must, of course, be steadily borne in mind that the capital employed in a particular trade, or rather so much of it as goes to the payment of wages, is the fund to be divided among the workmen, and that the proportion of this capital to the number of workmen in the trade must determine the rate of wages in that trade; that capital is naturally attracted to a prosperous and repelled from a declining trade, and hence that the interest of the workmen is ultimately bound up with that of the trade to which he belongs. Capital and labour when at variance may, indeed, remind us of the fable of the serpent with two heads springing from one stem, of which each is engaged in perpetual conflict with the other; but, as they have a common principle of sensation, each feels every wound that it inflicts. But, though the workman in every trade has manifestly a common interest with the capitalist in augmenting its productiveness

and protecting it from injury, above all in sustaining its efficiency so as to keep ahead of the foreign competitor, this is far from concluding the question. In a declining trade, such as was for many years carried on by the Spitalfields weavers, a strike, by augmenting the disadvantages of the trade, may be an important step on the road to ruin, and, instead of raising wages, may accelerate and aggravate their fall. But there are other branches of industry, the conditions of which are widely different. Thus, there are some trades which could not possibly be transferred to a foreign soil, but must be carried on upon the spot. In the report of the Social Science Association, to which I have already so often referred, the building trades are mentioned as an example of this class. Notwithstanding the great strikes in the London building trades in the years 1859, 1860, and 1861, and the increased prices at which building contracts have been executed, everywhere one sees evidence of prodigious activity in these trades. Again, we are accustomed to hear it stated that coal and iron are the two commodities on which an export duty might safely be imposed, because of these commodities we have practically a monopoly. It is said that the iron trade has doubled itself ten times within the last forty years, with an annual rate of increase of 20 or 30 per cent. The whole country has been startled at the warning voice that called attention to the rapid increase in the consumption of our coal, and bade us moderate this lavish expenditure of our industrial resources. Those two great industries of iron and coal have been of late years torn and distracted with strikes, more almost than any others, but this has not prevented their prodigious expansion. The strikes in the Potteries have not hindered a great increase and great improvement in ceramic production. The cotton industry itself—though, of course, rudely disturbed by the American civil war—has thriven and grown in spite of repeated strikes.

VII.

In these great branches of industry in which, through the fluctuations of good and bad years, there is a continual, though not a steady, increase of the gross returns to be shared between the capitalist and the labourer; in which, from the rapid growth of the trade, its conditions are in a perpetual flux, and never have time to settle into a state of stable equilibrium,—I conceive that there will in general be a large margin of uncertainty as to the division of the returns between profits and wages, and that the precise place at which the line is drawn will to a very considerable extent be determined by circumstances which may fairly be called fortuitous, and may be greatly influenced by a bargain between the employer and the employed. When a question of this sort arises, and is not

adjusted by agreement, it seems to me quite possible that a rise in the price of labour may be attained by temporarily withholding the supply, and that the rise so acquired may be permanently held—in other words, that a strike may be successful.

How far in the case of an improving trade wages rise with the prosperity of the trade in the ordinary course of events, and without any such violent action as is implied in a strike, is one of the most difficult of inquiries, for answering which there exist, so far as I am aware, but few available materials.

Mr. Felkin, in his examination before the Parliamentary committee of 1856, on masters and operatives, had the following question put to him: “A great deal has been said about the strikes of the operatives, have the masters ever raised the wages of the operatives?” His answer was: “There have been many cases within my recollection of individual masters raising the wages of their workmen.” He added, following pretty much the ordinary views of political economists: “It is generally an individual master who, by his example, or, at least, by his action, obliges another to raise his wages. He cannot get his labour performed in sufficient quantity or with sufficient rapidity to answer his demand, and, therefore, he raises his wages, and the consequence is that the other manufacturers have done the same.” Mr. Donald, a witness before the same committee, was asked: “Is not it the fact that advance of wages takes place occasionally without a strike?” His reply was: “Very seldom.” To the same effect are the observations of Mr. Godfrey Lushington, in a paper grounded upon information received with regard to different trades in Glasgow and Liverpool, and which forms part of the Social Science Association’s report already several times referred to. He says that “instances are accumulated of successful efforts on the part of societies to raise or keep up wages, and only very rare instances are produced of a general rise without combination.” On this point, whether wages rise in the course of events, and without being in the first instance forced up by a strike, or whether the leverage of a strike is required to give the impulse, trustworthy facts appear to be most desirable.

By no means, as it appears to me, could employers more convincingly demonstrate that strikes are needless, and, therefore, a wanton injury to the prosperity and peace of society, than by the production of a sufficient number and variety of examples of wages being raised, or the hours of labour being reduced, otherwise than under the pressure of a strike, either actual or apprehended.

VIII.

There are many strikes of which the object is utterly unsound, and would alone be sufficient to condemn them to failure. Such are

those strikes which are directed against the introduction of machinery, and which were formerly frequent among the Lancashire operatives. The first narrative appended to the Social Science Association's Report of 1860, relates to an unsuccessful strike of the Northamptonshire boot and shoemakers, in November, 1857, against the introduction of machinery for sewing the upper leathers of boots and shoes. Dr. John Watts states, with reference to this strike, that when "the shoemakers of Northampton struck against the employment of the sewing machine, so strong was the sympathy of the trade societies, that subscriptions were made in aid of the strike from the users of the machine in Kettering, and from the very machine shop in London which supplied the obnoxious articles." The same author states, that "a Liverpool shipbuilder, in 1859, got the copper for a ship's bottom punched by machinery ready for nailing on, but his workmen struck, and obliged him to set the hand punchers to work and go over the job again, as if it was not already done, and to pay them for the sham." Sometimes the discontent that finds its issue in a strike is fostered by trade practices of an irritating description. The report of the Parliamentary committee on masters and workmen, of 1856, is full of complaints of the system prevalent in the Potteries, called "good from oven," by which the workman is made responsible for the safety of his work until its final delivery to the master. "Those whose work goes into the oven," said one of the witnesses, "are subject to the loss which is occasioned by the placers; that is, the men through whose hands the work goes; in the next place it is subject to loss in the carrying it from the oven to the warehouse; in the last place, it is subject to loss in the warehouse, in the emptying out of the baskets, in the ware being nipped and broken one against the other. It is subject to losses all through, until you get the money in your pocket for it." It is easy to understand how this system, which, though established to protect the manufacturer from imposition by unskilful workmen, must constantly saddle the workmen with losses which come from no fault of his, gives rise to constant heartburnings. So, too, Mr. Harrison refers to the practice in many collieries of confiscating, that is, not paying anything to the colliers for, any tubs which come up from the pit less than brimful, the dislike to which led to a strike in the Brancepeth collieries. But the great causes on which masters and men come into collision are undoubtedly the rate of wages, the hours of labour, including the questions of overtime and piecework, and the rules as to apprenticeship.

IX.

The history of the strike of the amalgamated society of engineers, in 1851, has been graphically narrated by Mr. Thomas

Hughes, in the often mentioned report of the Social Science Association. The scattered societies of workmen in the iron trade were united in 1851, under the name of "The Amalgamated Society of Engineers, Machinists, Millwrights, Smiths, and Pattern Makers." At the end of 1851, the society numbered 11,829 members; it had 121 branches in different towns of the United Kingdom; its income for the year amounted to 22,807*l.*, its expenditure to 13,324*l.* It had in hand an available balance of nearly 22,000*l.* From its commencement it stood pledged to attempt the abolition of systematic piecework and overtime in the iron trades. On the 11th of July, 1851, a circular was signed by the council of the society to all the trades, requiring, among other things, the votes of the men to be taken on the subject of piecework and systematic overtime; 9,000 out of the 10,000 members are stated to have voted, and of those it is said that only 16 voted in favour of piecework and systematic overtime. On the 24th of November, 1851, a circular was sent by the council of the society to the men and the employers, which announced the discontinuance of systematic overtime (above the regular working day of ten hours) and of piecework, after the 31st of December, 1851; and that when overtime was necessary, in consequence of breakdowns or other accidents, double charges would be made for time so worked over. These demands were met by the formation of an association of employers, which, at a meeting held on the 24th of December, 1851, resolved, in the event of the hands of any establishment going on strike, or otherwise enforcing the demands of the amalgamated society, on the 31st of December, 1851, or at any subsequent period, entirely to close their establishments on the 10th of January, 1852, or within a week after the period at which those demands should be enforced, until the causes rendering that step necessary should have been removed.

The council of the amalgamated engineers' society now declared that their demands were strictly confined to piecework and overtime (repudiating the charge that they insisted on skilled workmen being employed in the superintendence of self-acting machines), and offered to refer the dispute to independent arbitrators.

No notice was taken of the offer. The strike began on the 1st of January, 1852, and on the 10th the employers closed their establishments. In the first week after the lock-out the amalgamated society issued an appeal to the iron trades and the public, asking for subscriptions, chiefly, as they stated, for the non-society men and less skilled labourers, who would be the sufferers by the oppressive measure of the masters. In answer to this appeal 4,039*l.* was subscribed. Mr. Hughes states that "the society, during "the strike, paid to the non-society men and labourers 7,767*l.*, the „ balance being taken out of the subscriptions which the trades

“ societies sent to the council of the amalgamated society, and “ which amounted in the whole to 4,899*l*.”

On the 24th of January, the masters adopted resolutions, one of which required that every person working in the establishment of any of the associated employers should sign a declaration that he did not and would not belong to any trade union or like society.

In February the workshops were opened to some who would sign the declaration. As the funds of the amalgamated society declined, and it became evident that they could not continue the contest, the men gradually returned to work, and by the end of April they had almost all got back. Mr. Hughes adds, “ that the saddest part of the “ story remains. It is very difficult to ascertain the facts, but it is to “ be feared that almost all the masters insisted on ‘ the declaration,’ “ and that it was signed by large numbers of the men who did not “ leave and never meant to leave the amalgamated society.”

It is stated that in June, 1852, the society’s balance had fallen from 21,705*l*. to 1,721*l*. The number of members which in June, 1852, was 11,617, on the 31st of December was only 9,737 ; but at the end of 1858 the society numbered nearly 15,000 members: it had 186 branches, and, having in that year distributed 47,368*l*. in benefits to its members, it had yet a balance of nearly 30,000*l*. at the year’s end. Mr. Harrison, writing in 1865, says that “ the “ engineers’ union has since the struggle trebled its members, and is “ so strong that no contest with it would have a chance of success.”

The money-cost of the lock-out to the amalgamated society, according to Mr. Hughes, was 35,495*l*., to which sum must be added the amount of wages lost by the men during their three months of idleness before we can fairly estimate the cost to the workpeople only. I may here mention that the received mode of computing the losses of the workmen during a strike, by adding the amount actually expended to the loss of wages, appears to me open to considerable doubt. The money expended takes the place of part of the wages which would have been earned. The contributors take upon themselves the loss represented by their contributions ; the balance of the loss of wages falls upon the workmen on strike ; but the aggregate of the workmen’s loss is, as it appears to me, equal to the amount of wages which would have been earned, and no more.

So ended, to the discomfiture of the workmen, this great contest against systematic overtime and piecework.

X.

The amalgamated society, in arguing their case, were placed in a great deal of difficulty by representing overtime sometimes as a burden, prejudicial to health, and preventing all leisure, relaxation, and self-improvement ; sometimes as a privilege which ought not to

be conceded to any while others were unemployed. May not overtime, however, be fairly regarded as having a tendency to grow into a systematic addition to the hours of labour, through which in the end the working day would be lengthened without a corresponding augmentation of wages, and, therefore, as a thing which, though of course it may enable the individual labourer to increase his earnings, may be not unreasonably objected to? Piecework, on the other hand, appears to be the only means by which superior excellence on the part of the workman can obtain its due reward; and the objections urged against it on the part of the amalgamated engineers that, "whatever evils spring from men working longer hours than is consistent with their health and moral being, spring from piecework to the full as much as from overtime;" that "by it men are induced to work as long as exhausted nature can sustain itself; and in addition it leads them to hurry over their work, and leave it imperfectly finished, when defects may be concealed," appear to be neither well founded nor sufficient.

Mr. Harrison, on grounds already partly indicated, considers that the strike of the amalgamated engineers cannot be considered as a real failure. He says that "the strength of the engineer's union is now so well known that it never has to be exercised in a trade dispute of its own;" that "for ten years it has not raised wages or attempted to do so, but has prevented any fall of wages and dismissal of hands, and almost all overtime, and is the most important association existing in industry."

XI.

The history of the Preston strike in 1853, was contributed by Mr. James Lowe to the Social Science report of 1860. There had been a strike at Preston in 1836, in which the operatives had to yield after much suffering, and after a loss, it was said, of 107,000*l.* to the town. In 1847, a year of great distress, wages in the district were reduced 10 per cent., and with the return of prosperity it was urged that they ought to be restored to their former height. The Preston strike was preceded by one at Stockport, which was terminated by concessions made to the workmen. Then the agitation spread to Preston; meetings were held, and speeches made in favour of the rise of 10 per cent. On the 27th of August, 1853, the advanced rate had been conceded to the spinners in most of the mills in Preston and its neighbourhood. There was, however, one mill in which, on a dispute of very small pecuniary importance as to the construction of an agreement, all the hands were turned adrift under circumstances productive of great irritation; and at five mills (afterwards reduced to four) at which the advances to the spinners had been refused, the masters were under notice of a strike. An

agitation was on foot to procure for the weavers a similar augmentation of 10 per cent. Under these circumstances the re-organized masters' association of Preston published a document, dated 15th September, 1853, in which, referring to the circumstance that the men were acting under the dictates of union delegates, they declared their intention of meeting the strike by a lock-out. Unsuccessful endeavours were made at mediation, and a subscription was opened for the operatives. "On Saturday, the 15th of October," says Mr. Lowe, "the time of the notices which had been served expired, and the key was turned upon a large proportion of the Preston operatives; by the end of the next week forty-five firms had stopped working, and two more were running under notice. In all Preston fifteen firms declared their intention of acting independently. These firms continued running through the lock-out. Their aggregate horse-power was about 500, and they gave employment to above 3,000 hands. The horse-power stopped by the lock-out was nearly 3,000, and about 18,000 hands were rendered inactive. With an exaggeration, perhaps, very natural, the number was variously stated at from 20,000 to 30,000."

On the 4th of November the masters' association met and published resolutions, in one of which they expressed their determination, when the time should arise for the re-opening of the mills, to pay the same rate of wages as before the recent advances. Meanwhile, subscriptions flowed in on the operatives, and by the middle of November reached nearly 3,000*l.* per week. In December the masters issued a notice that applications for work would be received, and that the mills would be re-opened when a sufficient number of hands should have applied. It is stated that, though the immediate response to this invitation was insignificant, it, nevertheless, indirectly proved a heavy blow to the operatives by obliging the committee to take into pay a number of persons who had discontinued factory labour for years, but threatened now to accept work unless they were subsidised from the relief funds.

During the winter, both sides maintained their position; large subscriptions were received by the workmen, but there was great distress among them. The Preston masters also received assistance from a defence fund, contributed by other Lancashire employers by means of a percentage on their outlay for wages. On the 8th of February the masters announced their intention of opening their mills on the following day. This intention was carried into effect, and a certain number of workmen obtained; a measure which also had an important indirect effect against the operatives by obliging the poor law guardians to refuse relief to persons able to work. Attempts were made to procure labourers from other counties and from Ireland; and to protect them against the unionists a house was

fitted up for them near the railway station under the title of "The Factory Immigrants Home." It does not appear that these immigrants were of much use. They seem to have been mostly of the pauper class, wholly wanting in skill, industry, and respectability. Some disorders of no great magnitude were followed by a proclamation against public meetings in the borough, and naturally enough by some "monster meetings" out of the borough; and on the 18th of March five of the delegates were arrested on a charge of conspiracy for molesting and disturbing certain persons hired by cotton spinners to work in their business, they having met a consignment of Irish at Fleetwood and persuaded them to return. This roused the spirit of the workmen to a great height, and the subscriptions which had been failing were poured in with renewed abundance. On the 29th of March a mediation committee was formed in Preston with a view to reconciling masters and men, but without effect. Finally, an accident brought about a termination of this most obstinate contest. The state of trade being bad, and aggravated by the Russian War, the masters at Stockport withdrew the advance of wages which they had conceded to their workmen. Immediately the Stockport operatives struck on their own account. The next week there was a large deficiency in the funds sent to Preston. The various hands on strike dropped off one by one, the throstle spinners first, the spinners last. On the 15th of May, 1854, the whole body of Preston spinners applied for work, and the strike practically ended. "Thus," says Mr. Lowe, "came to an abrupt but not unexpected termination the Preston labour battle of 1853-54, after an obstinate resistance of nearly seven months; a contest unprecedented in history, and which, if the lessons of experience be not without effect, will never again be repeated." Mr. Harrison, writing in 1865, says, "it is well known in Preston that this great struggle was in reality a drawn battle, which has left the union far stronger than before, and has given the men a much more definite position."

The balance sheets circulated by the different trades showed that they received and distributed during this great strike subscriptions to the amount of 105,165*l.* The numerous and various sources from which contributions were received appear from the curious list at the end of Mr. Lowe's report, which comprises the proceeds of a benefit at a riding circus at Brighton, of a concert at Belfast, and of two raffles at Liverpool. The total loss occasioned by the Preston strike to employers and workmen is estimated by Dr. Watts at 627,000*l.*, and in an article in the "Edinburgh Review" for July, 1854, at 533,250*l.*

XII.

The strike of the building trades in London in 1859-60, as to

which I will not attempt a consecutive narrative, finds its historians for the Social Science Association's report in Mr. George Shaw Lefevre and Mr. Thomas Bennet. It had been preceded by many years' agitation, and was distinctly a strike (originating with the carpenters and joiners) for the reduction of the hours of labour from ten to nine hours per day, without any reduction in wages. The strike, which commenced in July, 1859, was met on the part of the master builders by a lock-out on the following 6th of August, when 225 of the largest London firms, employing, it is said, 24,000 out of 40,000 artisans, in the trade, and including every master employing more than fifty men, closed their shops. They were afterwards re-opened to men signing a declaration, pledging themselves not to belong to a trade union, and, though very slowly, they were gradually to a great extent filled with workmen from the country and others who signed the declaration. Ultimately, when the strike was languishing, and the lock-out was confined to men refusing the declaration, the masters acceded to a suggestion made by Lord St. Leonards, that the declaration should be withdrawn, and that, in lieu of it, there should be hung up in the workshops a paper embodying the law affecting masters and men, and concluding with a statement that the acceptance of employment where the paper was hung up would be considered an admission by the workman that he was not, and a declaration that during his employment he would not become bound to any rules depriving him or his fellow workmen of free liberty to accept, continue, or relinquish employment upon such terms as they should think fit. This put an end to the lock-out and strike. The last payment by the workmen's conference was made on the 27th of February, 1860, and, in the language of the historians of the strike, "the movement in favour of the nine hours may be considered as from that time closed or postponed."

The sum received from other trades and expended by the conference of the building trades in the relief of skilled workmen and labourers out of work is stated to have amounted to about 23,000*l.*, but "this sum," it is observed, "represents but a very small portion of the losses resulting to the men from the strike and lock-out. The amount of wages which was sacrificed by them would be indicated by a sum of nearly ten times that amount, while the losses entailed upon the masters by the stoppage of their trade, from the loss of profits and from the failure of interest upon their capital invested would be represented by an amount of great magnitude, the public on their part having suffered by the stoppage of many works of immediate importance, and by the interference with other trades caused by the suspension of so large a branch of industry as the building trades."

The Registrar-General's report for 1859 shows that the deaths among persons in the various branches of the building trade, especially the deaths of children, that surest index of destitution and suffering, were materially beyond the average during the continuance of the strike.

The agitation for nine hours' work was renewed in March, 1861, and met by a counter proposal for payment by the hour, which was unacceptable, principally, as it appears, from its depriving the men of the protection afforded by a recognised length of the working day. Another strike followed, and was protracted for fourteen months. Mr. Harrison, in a note appended to his paper on this strike, contributed to the "Transactions of the Social Science Association" for 1862, states that, at the end of that period, the "men resolved to return to work under the new system, reserving to themselves the power of resisting any instance of an attempt to use it for the purpose of prolonging the hours of labour. The policy has been found effective, and the 'day' for which they contended has been eventually awarded. Thus, whatever be the ostensible issue of the struggle, the real result is anything but failure to the men." Writing in 1865, Mr. Harrison says, that "the unions of the builders in London never were so strong as they are now, and the time cannot be far distant when they will attain their great object—the day of nine hours' work."

XIII.

The claim to shorten the hours of labour is supported to a great extent on the same grounds as the resistance to overtime, though there are more solid and cogent reasons for preserving the integrity and certainty of the standard working day than for abridging its duration. As to the reduction of the working day to nine hours, it has been truly said to be a question of wages; but when, it is added, "if you set all who work for wages to consume ten-tenths and to produce nine-tenths, where is the difference to come from," I demur to the inference. Even on economical grounds, excessive hours of labour, by producing premature decay, and thus shortening the duration of so valuable an instrument of production as a skilled workman, must be detrimental to industry. Habitual exhaustion must be at once unfavourable to steady energy, and an inducement to indulge in stimulants. A workman with but very little leisure is hardly likely to make good use of the little he has; and though his first effort must be to live out of his work, his next may fairly be to live under conditions not unbecoming a rational creature. While admitting that a reduction of the hours of labour below the maximum consistent with the utmost efficiency of the workman's labour, is equivalent to a rise of wages, and can only be obtained when a

rise of wages is possible, I see no objection, but the reverse, to workmen directing their efforts rather to a reasonable and moderate reduction in the hours of labour than to a rise of wages.

XIV.

Certain rules for restricting the number of apprentices, and preventing their employment as journeymen during the continuance of the apprenticeship, were the cause of the strike of the flint glass makers, in 1858-59, an account of which was contributed by Mr. Godfrey Lushington to the report of the Social Science Association. This strike, which lasted about six months, during part of which about 1,100 workmen were out on strike, terminated in a compromise. Strict requirements as to apprenticeship are defended for their favourable influence on trade instruction and on the quality of work; but it appears strange that, after the legal requirements as to apprenticeship have been removed, others should be imposed in their place by the voluntary action of trade societies; and it would seem that such rules must have a pernicious effect in preventing the transfer of labour from one branch of industry to another, and in hindering the workman from bettering himself by passing from the rank of a labourer into that of a mechanic. On the whole, though apprenticeship under indenture, or under general regulations, may be sound as a practice, it appears questionable whether it can afford a reasonable ground for combined workmen to make a stand upon against the masters, who, while industrial operations are carried on for their benefit and at their risk, must mainly control the arrangements and organisation of industry.

XV.

I will merely refer to the great strike in the Staffordshire iron trade in 1865. It commenced by the puddlers striking against a reduction of 10 per cent. in their wages, and was met by a lock-out on the part of the masters. It is said that 200,000 persons were by this strike deprived of their means of subsistence. The strike took place upon a falling market, and ended, I believe, by the required reduction being submitted to, and the men returning to work on the masters' terms.

Very recently there has been a strike and lock-out in the Potteries, which terminated at the end of last November, in a compromise, after (it is stated) a loss in wages of about 70,000%. It appears that a system of monthly notice has been substituted for the year's hiring, which was formerly customary in the Potteries, and is repeatedly referred to in the evidence taken before the Parliamentary committee on masters and workmen in 1856.

XVI.

The great strike in the north country iron trade, which has one of its principal seats at Middlesbrough-on-the-Tees, after lasting for eighteen weeks, closed on the 23rd of last November, by the men returning to work at the reduction proposed by the masters. The "*Leeds Mercury*" estimates the number of workmen on strike as 12,000, and the loss in wages to the workpeople from this strike at 180,000*l.*, besides the loss to employers, and vast consequential losses to tradesmen and others. The distress arising from this strike is said to have been most severe, and such as to recall the Preston strike, with its awful attendants—fever and famine. It is said that men who, while in full work, were receiving from 3*s.* to 5*l.* or 6*l.* a-week, obtained from the union pittances of two, three, or four shillings a-week, sometimes even being limited to a single shilling. The want of economy on the part of highly paid workmen, such as those last-mentioned, by means of which, after a few weeks without employment, they are plunged in the deepest distress, has often been the subject of severe and merited reprehension.

XVII.

The more one considers the great and protracted strikes which have been rendered possible by the existing organisation of trade societies, the more one is impressed by the amount of loss and misery which such a strike occasions—to the masters disaster, perhaps bankruptcy, to the men privation, disease, the breaking up of habits and of homes, disturbance and disorganisation to the whole trade of the district. Such a contest has often been compared to a war, which, though the last resort for settling disputed rights, is itself the greatest of calamities; and in the wars of industry there is this special contingency, that both parties may, without their being aware of it, be fighting for the benefit of some competitor who will seize the prize for which they are contending. While conceding that the power which combination confers upon the workman is essential to his protection, it must be earnestly desired that that power should rarely be called into active exertion, that its effect should be felt rather in promoting a peaceful solution of difficulties, and in averting contests, than in provoking them or determining their issue. That a strike should only be resorted to when all other means of adjustment have been tried and failed, appears not only a maxim of self-evident truth, but one enforced in practice by such tremendous penalties as to render it surprising that that which there are such strong reasons for preventing should so frequently occur. That instead of strikes being rare events, they should be almost chronic in so many trades and so many districts, must, I fear,

notwithstanding the marvellous growth of our industry and commerce, be traceable to some serious unsoundness in the relations of employer and workman, the responsibility for which is not wholly on one side. The magnitude of the evil has naturally led to the endeavour to discover a remedy.

XVIII.

The establishment of courts of conciliation for the equitable adjustment of disputes between masters and workmen was regarded as promising great improvement, and has twice—namely, in 1856 and 1860—formed the subject of Parliamentary committees. It was considered that the proposed tribunals might resemble the French “*conseils de prud’hommes*,” which have for many years acted, it is said, with the happiest effects in deciding disputes between masters and workmen. It was found, however, that the functions of the *conseils de prud’hommes* are of a judicial or *quasi* judicial character, extending to breaches of contract, contravention of trade regulations, questions as to the quality of work, and so on ; all matters as to which there are positive grounds for decision, and that they have no jurisdiction to regulate the rate of wages, or otherwise fix the terms of a bargain between the employer and the employed. The committee of 1856 expressed its opinion that it would be impossible to give to any tribunal any power of forcibly regulating the rate of wages ; and, I think, that most people on reflection will agree that the machinery of arbitration is inapplicable to a free bargain for labour between the employer and the employed. Another bill for the establishment of courts of conciliation is now before Parliament.

Much importance is attached to that industrial organisation by which the workman shares in the profits of the concern—an arrangement first rendered possible by the Limited Liability Acts, and much facilitated by the Partnership Law Amendment Act of 1865, enabling participation in profits to exist without necessarily drawing after it the character and liabilities of a partner. The Messrs. Briggs’s colliery, at Methley, near Leeds, was lately re-organised as a limited company, in which they retained two-thirds of the shares, the remaining third being offered to customers and to workmen in their employ. After paying a dividend of 10 per cent., the surplus of the profits was to be equally divisible between the capitalists and the workmen, the moiety of the latter being again subdivided so as to give two-thirds to the workmen who were shareholders and one-third to the workmen who were not shareholders, and the distribution among the workmen being in rateable proportion to their wages. This plan has proved highly successful, being not only acceptable to the men, but much more remunerative to the proprietors than the

business before its reconstruction. A plan of the like description (but not, as I understand it, involving the formation of a joint stock company) has been proposed to their workmen by Messrs. Fox, Wood, and Co., of Newport Rolling Mills, Middlesbrough. Schemes of this kind are, of course, much less removed from the ordinary type of industrial arrangements than co-operation properly so called, in which the associated workmen elect their own manager and hire the capital that they want, instead of themselves working for hire.

XIX.

That in one or other of its forms, co-operation is destined to play a great part in the organisation of industry is highly probable. It may even be—though of course this is a point on which it is impossible to speak otherwise than conjecturally—that the prevalence of strikes is itself a symptom of uneasy working towards a transformation in the conditions of labour, through which the mass of mere workmen for hire will to a great extent be replaced by those who unite the characters of workmen and capitalists. But it must be long before such a change, if pending, can make any considerable progress, and in the meantime probably the most practical remedy against these violent interruptions of the tranquil course of industry will be found in the growth of a larger amount of candour, good temper, and understanding of their true relative position on the part both of masters and men. The evidence before the Parliamentary committee of 1856 is full of complaints of the want of sympathy between employers and men, and attributes great importance even to small matters tending to cement a connection between them.

XX.

On the whole, perhaps, the following conclusions may be thought to be in accordance with the facts:—

1. The single workman is, when alone, no match for his employer. His weakness naturally leads to his combining with others having the same interest with himself. This combination may be legitimate, though not confined to the workmen under one master, but much more extensive in its scope. The workmen of a trade may fairly combine for upholding common trade interests against a master or any number of masters.

2. A strike, or the fear of a strike, is the last resort of the workman for enforcing a more favourable bargain with his employer. Without the existence of an extensive organisation, by which funds could be collected from workmen in employment and applied for the maintenance of workmen on strike, it would hardly be possible that a strike could be conducted to a favourable issue. Hence the

connection between trades unions and strikes. A strike for a rise of wages or reduction in the hours of labour, if made when the condition of the trade renders such a demand reasonable, if not resorted to until peaceable means have failed, if carried on without violence or intimidation, is not necessarily to be condemned on economical or other grounds; but, as it is sure to inflict great loss and distress, and to impede the production of the wealth on which both employers and workmen must live, it should be regarded as a great calamity—it should not be undertaken without careful consideration of the circumstances of the trade, nor while there is a chance that the dispute can be equitably settled by peaceable means.

3. Employers must consent to abandon the autocratic view of the position of the chiefs of industry. They must be forbearing and conciliatory in their relations with their workmen. They must recognise in the trade union a power co-ordinate with themselves, and consent to regard it as representing the workmen as to those matters on which a workman has a right to be heard—as to his pay, his hours of labour, the salubrity of the factory in which he works, and the like; but, on the other hand, they are not bound to admit of the interposition of the society as to any matters not immediately connected with the remuneration, health, and comfort of the workmen.

4. Workmen, both individually and when collected in trade societies, must bear in mind that they have a common interest with their employers, as well as a separate interest. Both are interested in the augmentation of the trade resources which form the fund to be shared between them, and it is only when the apportionment takes place that there is room for variance.

5. Trade unions must avoid meddling and officious interference; as those whose means keep industry going, and who run the risks attendant on industrial undertakings, must be left to control the discipline of industry. They must cease to assume that there is an antagonism between them and the masters; and must bear in mind that they are doing their constituents incalculable mischief when they hinder the growth and impair the prosperity of the trade to which they belong. They must keep to their own functions, that is, the protection of trade interests and the due administration of their common funds. Their action for political objects can only be fatal to their efficiency for the purposes for which they were formed. Above all, they must respect the freedom of others, whether masters or workmen. Only when they themselves abstain from coercion, and, relying on the free and voluntary support of their own members, they forbear to interfere with the liberty of others, can they expect to win respect or support from enlightened opinion.

On PRISON DISCIPLINE and STATISTICS in LOWER BENGAL. By
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[Read before the Statistical Society, 15th January, 1867.]

CONTENTS:

	PAGE		PAGE
I.—Introduction	21	VI.—Reconvictions	43
II.—Present State of the Ques- tion of Prison Discipline in Bengal	22	VII.—Escape and Reapprehen- sions	43
III.—General Characteristics of Indian Prisoners	33	VIII.—Cost of Prisoners	44
IV.—Prisoners in Custody and their Disposal from 1860-61 to 1864-65.....	38	IX.—Education and Reforma- tion of Prisoners.....	45
V.—Sickness and Mortality of Prisoners in Bengal for the same period	41	X.—Bengal Gaol Code	46
		XI.—Concluding Remarks	48
		APPENDIX. Tables I to XIII.....	50

I.—Introduction.

IN the paper which I prepared for the Statistical Society in 1861,* and which I was unable to present for discussion, in consequence of my return to Bengal, I endeavoured to sketch the history of prison discipline in India, and to place before the English reader some of the more important results which had been obtained in convict management in the provinces under my charge to the end of 1859, the latest period for which the prison returns of the Lower Provinces were, at that time, in my possession.

In my present paper I intend to take up the subject, and to continue the record from the period above-mentioned, to the termination of the official year 1864-65, for which the returns are complete and published.

Since that time the gaols of the Aracan division have been removed from my control, from the annexation of that province to Pegu, and its consequent severance from the lieutenant-governorship of Bengal. On the other hand, the prisons in the Sonthal pergunnahs and the Calcutta gaols, have been made over to the department under my charge, and a special cellular prison has been built at Hazareebaugh, exclusively devoted to Europeans sentenced to penal servitude. The great gaol of Calcutta was in the charge of the

* Vol. xxv, pp. 175—218.

sheriff, subject to the immediate control of the High Court, and in no way under the authority of the Government of Bengal. The house of correction attached to it was governed by the chief magistrate of Calcutta, and was, in like manner beyond my supervision. A special Act was passed by the Indian Legislature (Act VII of 1865), transferring all the prisons in Calcutta to the charge of the Government of Bengal, whereby they came under my authority. The prisons in the Sonthal pergunnahs were previously under the supervision of the Commissioner of that division.

I shall, for the sake of convenience, consider the subject as nearly as possible in the order adopted in my former paper—adding to the statistics remarks on the present state of the question of prison discipline in Bengal, with a very brief statement of the general characteristics of Indian criminals, and the measures taken for their punishment and reformation since 1859. The very limited space to which I have been restricted must be my apology for the incompleteness of my remarks. My jurisdiction extends over an area vastly greater than the whole of Great Britain and Ireland, with a population of probably one-third more, furnishing a mass of facts and figures that must of necessity be imperfectly treated in the limited time and space at my disposal.

II.—*Present State of the Question of Prison Discipline in Bengal.*

In my former paper I sketched briefly the history of prison discipline in Bengal, from its commencement to 1862, and endeavoured to show that all the material improvements in that important department of judicial administration were due to the Prison Discipline Committee of 1838, whose report is one of the most able and exhaustive documents extant, in any language, upon the subject of which it treats. Among the authors of this valuable state paper were some of the originators of the Indian penal code, which I believe to be the most complete, simple, and sound code of criminal law in existence.

The earliest action taken upon the report of 1838, was in the North West Provinces of the Bengal Presidency, where remarkable success followed the exertions of the first prison inspector, Mr. Woodcock, and his successors, Messrs. Walker, Thornhill, and Clark. There the radiating and cellular system of imprisonment was first put in practice in India, labour was properly organized, education was essayed, a system of rewards for well-conducted convicts was introduced, and the principles inculcated by Lord Macaulay's committee were subjected to fair trial and with considerable success. The next province to follow this good example was the Punjab, under the vigorous and enlightened administration of the Lawrences. A prison inspector was appointed

in 1853, who, armed with the accumulated experience of the older provinces of India and Europe, and fettered by no ancient prejudices and traditions, had a new and untilled field to work. To this, to the character of the population of that province, and, above all, to the constant care and attention bestowed upon the department by some of the most successful rulers of the age, may fairly be attributed the great success of prison management in the land of the Five Waters.

Bengal also began a new era of convict control in 1853; but it laboured under the extreme disadvantage of having every possible prejudice and indisposition to change to contend against. The prisons generally were badly built, were to the last degree insecure, were often placed in irreclaimably unhealthy positions, and accumulated within their walls every defect of administration, pointed out in the mass of detailed and curious evidence appended to the report of 1838, above referred to. Between the date of that document and the appointment of an officer specially charged with the superintendence of gaols, little real advance was made. In fact, the only recommendation of the committee of 1838 that had been carried into effect, failed from defective management.

In Madras and Bombay prison inspectors were appointed, but those presidencies laboured under many of the disadvantages of the Lower Provinces of Bengal, and, like them, have still to contend with the drawbacks incidental to old established systems, for the radical change of which the necessary funds have not been sanctioned.

In 1864, attention was again directed to the subject of gaol discipline and the condition of prisoners in India, by Sir John Lawrence, the present Viceroy of India. To this distinguished ruler was undoubtedly due the chief credit of the advanced state of these matters in the Punjab, when that province was under his personal control, and a model of good, efficient, and successful government, in every branch of its administration. In his minute on the subject, the Viceroy stated that a period of twenty-six years had elapsed since the prison committee of Lord William Bentinck had fearlessly exposed the then existing system of gaol management, and had recommended reforms, of which some have been carried out; but, added Sir John, "it is generally admitted that "the full measure of improvement contemplated by Lord William "Bentinck, and to which the Government was pledged by a "legislative enactment (Regulation II of 1834), has never been "carried out."

Although much good had been effected in the different presidencies and provinces by the appointment of prison inspectors, it was stated that little progress had been made either towards the improvement of prisoners or the prevention of crime; while the loss

of life among all classes confined in gaols continued to be very great, amounting in all India to about 70 per 1,000 of the average numbers in confinement.

A committee was accordingly appointed to consider and report upon this matter; upon juvenile delinquents and reformatories; upon female prisoners; upon the non-deterrent nature of imprisonment in the existing system, as indicated by the large number of reconvictions; upon length of sentence, as tending to nullify its effect; upon the want of settled principles of gaol management throughout the country; upon the necessity of exacting a certain portion of labour and punishment before any criminal was admitted to a course of probation or reward; upon the massing together of prisoners in central gaols; and upon the applicability of the ticket-of-leave system to India. The committee consisted of ten members,* and in it all the presidencies and most of the provinces of India were represented. Their report was submitted after two months of deliberation, and as it is brief and eminently practical, as it constitutes a landmark on the subject of prison discipline in India, and as the document seems to be entirely unknown in Europe, I believe that a brief analysis of its purport and recommendations will not be unacceptable to the Statistical Society, and to the large body of persons in Great Britain who are interested in the subject of prison discipline generally.

The first subject considered was the health of prisoners, among whom the heavy and persistent mortality† was attributed to overcrowding, bad ventilation, bad conservancy, bad drainage, insufficient clothing, sleeping on the ground, dirtiness of person, impure water, exaction of labour from unfit persons, and insufficient medical inspection. The most destructive of the agencies mentioned were the four first, and suitable remedies for the removal of all the defects

* Indian Gaol Committee of 1864:—

President.

Mr. A. A. Roberts, C.B., Bengal Civil Service, member of the Council of the Governor-General for making laws and regulations.

Members.

Mr. R. S. Ellis, C.B., Madras Civil Service, member of the same body.
Mr. H. L. Anderson, Bombay Civil Service, as above.
Dr. F. J. Mouat, F.R.C.S., Inspector General of Gaols, Bengal.

Mr. J. Strachey, Bengal Civil Service, President of the Sanitary Commission.

Mr. J. W. Sherer, Bengal Civil Service.
Dr. C. Hathaway, late Inspector of Prisons, Punjab.

Dr. J. C. Walker, late Superintendent of the Central Gaol, Agra, and of the Convict Settlement at Port Blair.

Dr. Farquhar, late Civil Surgeon of Lahore.

Mr. H. A. Cockerel, Bengal Civil Service, Superintendent of the Alipore Gaol.

† In the ten years from 1853-62 inclusive, there died within the walls of Indian gaols 46,309 persons, or at the rate of 7·85 per cent. of average strength.

were suggested. They contain nothing new or remarkable, and are such as are constantly pressed upon public attention at home when a fresh outbreak of epidemic disease excites general apprehension. The greater number of the defects pointed out are due to the defective construction of the gaols, particularly in Lower Bengal, and little short of an entire reconstruction can remove them effectually. As this would involve a very large outlay of money, which is not likely to be sanctioned, I do not anticipate any radical improvement, except from the diminution of the number of their inmates by the establishment of central prisons, and by such other changes of detail as can be accomplished with the existing agency, and ill-placed, worse planned buildings.

Juvenile Delinquents and Reformatories.—The juvenile population of Indian gaols has always been a source of trouble and difficulty, from the absence of special provision for the training and punishment of offenders of tender age. The committee were of opinion that the Whipping Act* would so much thin the juvenile population

* Act VI of 1864, passed by the Governor-General of India in Council to authorise the punishment of whipping in addition to the punishments authorised by Section 58 of the Penal Code, in which flogging was not included. The offences for which it was authorised are theft, as defined in Section 378 of the Penal Code; theft in a building, tent, or vessel; theft by a clerk or servant; theft after preparation for causing death or hurt; extortion by theft; putting a person in fear of accusation, in order to commit extortion; dishonestly receiving stolen property; lurking house trespass—the provisions of the penal code being, in all those cases, taken to define the offences. The offender, in all above cases, is rendered liable to whipping in lieu of the other punishments allowed by the code, on the first commission of the offence. For a repetition of those offences, on reconviction an offender may be punished with whipping in lieu of, or in addition to, any other punishment authorised by the penal code.

The offences punishable by whipping in addition to the other punishments allowed on second convictions, are giving or fabricating false evidence, false charges of the commission of unnatural offences, criminal assaults on women with intent to outrage their modesty, rape, unnatural offences, robbery, or daring or attempting to commit robbery, voluntarily causing hurt in committing robbery, habitually receiving or dealing in stolen property, forgery of different kinds, lurking house trespass or housebreaking.

For juvenile offenders who commit any offence not punishable with death, whipping is authorised by the Act referred to, in a first or any other offence, in lieu of any other punishment.

The Act was made applicable to frontier districts and wild tracts in certain circumstances. All females and persons sentenced to death, to transportation, to penal servitude, or to imprisonment for more than five years, are exempt from its operation.

The Act contains careful provisions to prevent the abuse and regulate the lawful use of the punishment of whipping.

The Act is still in force, and, so far as I know, it has worked well. Its primary object was undoubtedly to relieve the over-crowded prisons, and to avert the great risk to life from incarceration in gaols, which over-crowding renders dangerous to life. Its effect, I have reason to believe, has been a remarkable diminution of crime.

I have dwelt thus long upon it, because I believe the feeling in England on the

of the gaols as to render the establishment of reformatories unnecessary. Some members of the committee thought that unworthy parents in India would urge their children to commit crime for the purpose of obtaining for them free education and maintenance; to counteract which, it was recommended that the English law to recover something from the parents towards the maintenance of the child should be extended to India. Without advocating the institution of special reformatories, the means of separating juvenile offenders from adults was strongly urged, and it was deemed desirable that special sleeping accommodation should be provided in all prisons for every juvenile inmate. The necessity for such a measure, on moral grounds, is greater in the East than it is in Great Britain.

Female Prisoners.—The existing accommodation for female prisoners in district gaols was recommended to be improved and extended; separate accommodation to be provided for tried, untried, and civil female prisoners; special hospital room to be found for them, and all to be as much separated from the male prisoners as possible.

In central gaols a special compartment, under the charge of an English or Eurasian matron, with female turnkeys and attendants, was deemed necessary.

At present all female criminals in the Lower Provinces sentenced

subject of whipping to be based on erroneous views regarding its supposed demoralising effects, and its deterrent influence on the criminal population. The infliction of physical pain is more dreaded by thieves, habitual criminals, and the depraved and dissolute, than any other form of punishment that would now be tolerated. So long as it is deemed right to flog soldiers and sailors, it is scarcely logical to consider criminals entitled to exemption on any ground of morality or expediency. The usual effect of flogging is thought to consist in its provoking anger and retaliation, and thus aggravating the causes of crimes of violence to which alone it is applied in England. However theoretically correct this view may be, long experience of criminals, and intimate knowledge of their proclivities lead me irresistibly to the conclusion that it is a punishment peculiarly fitted for offenders of low moral susceptibility, in which category all habitual criminals may fairly be placed; that it is the most deterrent of all punishments to the class mentioned; that it is followed by no moral degradation of such persons, their morality being already below the standard that would feel disgrace from its infliction; that it costs little, and inflicts no permanent bodily injury on its recipients; and that it protects society more efficiently than any plan of imprisonment now in use. If it be well adapted to the native of Bengal, as I know it to be, I consider it to be still better suited for the British ruffian and thief, who is probably, in every sense, a worse man of his class than his Bengali brother. In India it is simply impossible to maintain discipline in gaol without it, or the alternative of resorting to other punishments which endanger health and life. In England I strongly suspect that stringent prison discipline is, in existing circumstances, impracticable, mainly because whipping is not allowed to be resorted to for its maintenance. I deny emphatically its cruelty. I disbelieve absolutely its immorality, and I am thoroughly satisfied of its deterrent influence, when properly regulated, judiciously applied, and jealously guarded from abuse, as it ought to be. It should never, in any circumstances, be applied to any one to whom it could justly be considered a moral degradation, but such are not garotters, habitual thieves, *et id genus omne*.

to penal servitude, or for more than one year of imprisonment, are placed in a special prison at Russa, near Alipore, and this gaol is under the charge of the authorities of the Alipore prison.

In the district gaol, all women tried, untried, sentenced, and civil prisoners are herded together, and no special female agency is maintained for them.

Gaol Dietaries.—These were considered to be sufficient in gross quantity, but, except in Lower Bengal and in some parts of the Madras Presidency, to be deficient in variety. The suggestions of the committee were :—

1. That animal food should form a portion of the dietary of all prisoners under trial and of all sentenced to imprisonment with labour : in the case of the former, to counteract the vital depression which at present causes a large amount of sickness and mortality among them ; and in the case of labouring prisoners, to enable them to bear without injury the strain of hard work.

2. That there should be two meals daily, the principal meal in the evening ; and that the Sunday dietary should be the same as that of week or work days.

3. That the food should be properly cooked.

4. That diminution of food should on no account be made a punitive measure.

5. That every precaution should be taken to prevent any diminution in the authorised scale by frauds, peculation, the use of false weights, &c.

6. That every gaol should have a garden for the growth of fresh vegetables, condiments, and anti-scorbutic fruits and vegetables.

The prison dietary introduced by me in 1861, and detailed in the twenty-fifth volume of the Society's *Journal* (pp. 192—194), is still in use, and is reported by most of the medical officers in Bengal to be ample in quantity and sufficiently varied. It was based as much as possible upon the scale and kinds of food used by the different classes to whom it referred when they were at large. It is just sufficient to maintain health and strength without placing the prisoners, as regards food, in a better position than the honest labourers of the same classes in their own houses. I have no doubt, however, that in times of scarcity and distress in Bengal, a large amount of crime is committed for the sole purpose of finding food and lodging at the public expense until the pressure ceases.

Prison Discipline.—After carefully considering the peculiar proclivities of natives of India in regard to crime, and their estimate of the effects of punishments ; the great want of prison accommodation ; the unsatisfactory state of gaol discipline from defective construction of prisons and the absence of a special body of officers for their immediate control, which renders the maintenance of discipline

dependent upon caprice or accident; and the absence of all trustworthy data on the subject of the recurrence of crime, the committee were of opinion:—

1st. That short terms of imprisonments, as they render a sustained course of discipline practicable, have great advantages over long terms, when the same constant surveillance of habits and actions tends to render the prisoner reckless and desperate, and discipline, if it declines at last into connivance at the breach of its own restrictions, loses all moral effect.

2nd. That all prisons should have special European superintendents, and that the circumstances of India render it expedient that they should be medical officers.

3rd. That well-organised labour should be the principal means of enforcing discipline in gaols. It has been ascertained that from it alone can be secured the order and regular distribution of time which are so repugnant to the criminal classes of India, and which alone render a residence in gaol to them an object of dread, apprehension, and avoidance. As a rule, they are universally idle, depraved, and irregular in all their habits.

To secure that the sentence of labour should be fairly carried out, the committee suggested that there should be three descriptions of work—hard, medium, and light—and that every convict should undergo a proportionate amount of each, according to the length of his sentence, before he should be entitled to any indulgence.

The committee attached great importance to the principle that a judicial sentence should be inviolable; that the remission of any portion of it should not be allowed to depend upon the conduct of the prisoner; and that the only exception should be the occurrence of a rapidly spreading, uncontrollable mortality, such as occasionally happens in India, when, under certain regulations, prisoners sentenced for less than six months, and long-term prisoners with less than six months of unexpired sentence, should be released.

Rewards.—The only rewards allowed by the committee to encourage submission to discipline and general good conduct are gradual mitigation of labour, from hard to medium and medium to light, always to be regarded as an indulgence: and promotion to offices of trust and responsibility within the prison. These offices in Indian gaols are of three classes, and are never to exceed 10 per cent. of the number of convicts in any gaol. The classes are, work overseers, ward masters, and convict guards. No gratuities of any kind to be allowed for such offices; and no criminal convicted of murder, gang robbery, highway robbery, rape, or unnatural offences to be admitted to this indulgence.

Punishments.—As all officers in charge of Indian gaols are armed with the powers of a magistrate within the precincts of their prisons,

they are entrusted with the authority to punish directly and summarily all gaol offences.

The punishments recommended are :—

1. Aimless labour, such as the crank.
2. Solitary confinement for a period not exceeding seventy-two hours.
3. Flogging, according to the provisions of the law on the subject.

The last named is found to be the most humane and efficient punishment that can be resorted to. No really well-behaved convict is ever subjected to it; as carried out, it is never injurious to health; it is a perpetual terror to habitual criminals, and those of ruffianly and degraded natures, who are almost invariably cowardly, and fear the least infliction of personal pain. It renders the maintenance of discipline easy, and in practice is rarely resorted to, inasmuch as the knowledge possessed by all refractory prisoners, that it will be unhesitatingly applied when deserved, restrains them from acts of violence, disobedience, and other infractions of discipline, to an extent that no amount of any other sort of punishment, unattended with immediate physical suffering, can effect.

All punishments inflicted are reported monthly to the head of the gaol department, and great care is taken that punishment is not abused.

I do not believe in the efficacy of any system of prison discipline in which the power of summary punishment is not possessed and exercised by the authority in immediate charge of the convicts; and I am satisfied that if a less sentimental public feeling existed on the subject in England, and the *argumentum baculinum* formed a portion of the sentence of all habitual offenders, as it does of garotters and those who are guilty of ruffianly assaults on women, the ranks of those classes would be remarkably and rapidly thinned. The result would be one of unmixed good, without any counterbalancing disadvantage that I am aware of. I know that this view of the matter is unpopular, and that any one who advocates it is sure to be pelted with every argument that confounds the use with the abuse of an instrument, and that assumes the existence of moral feelings in those in whom all morality is extinct, and who are not susceptible of personal degradation from any just and righteous infliction of the pain which they never hesitate to apply to the victims of their violence or in the accomplishment of their nefarious purposes, when they meet with the slightest resistance.

I speak from a personal experience of ten years of criminal classes, with whom I have been brought into near contact on a scale that, I believe, falls to the lot of no other single officer in any part of the world.

Education.—Although it does not appear on the face of their record, the Gaol Committee of 1864 evidently attached no importance to the education of Indian convicts, as an instrument of reformation.

“Education,” they said, “may be a reward or a punishment, according to the character of the convict to whom it is accorded. To the sullen, the stupid, and the idle, it must be a real infliction; while to the quick and intelligent it might be a mitigation of the tedium of confinement. It has been found an important aid to discipline, by employing the time after the conclusion of labour, which is otherwise occupied in idle conversation; and it is a means of completing the plan of never leaving the convict to himself, which is, to the unreclaimed class, one of the most punitive elements in a strict system.”

The recommendations of the committee were:—

1. That education may be used as a means of prison discipline, but should on no account lead to any relaxation of the sentence. It will be found a useful employment of that portion of the prisoner's time which is not occupied in labour. Nothing further should be aimed at than elementary instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, and the keeping of village accounts.

2. That well-behaved convicts who are sufficiently educated might be employed as class instructors, but such instruction must never be allowed to count as an exemption from labour.

The views of the Indian Prison Committee of 1838, upon the subject of the education of prisoners, were somewhat singular. They were of opinion that to educate the criminals of India would involve a very heavy expense for the least deserving body of men in the country, and that to devote any part of the sum assigned for the instruction of the people to teaching the worst class of the community, the class who would be least likely to turn their instruction to good account, and who were the class least deserving of public favour, was a proposition which they were unable to approve. They further argued, that “there is no man whom it would cost more to instruct than a criminal prisoner; there is none who would sooner forget instruction. And it would surely be an unjust thing to let the children of an honest man, too poor himself to send them to school, want instruction, and to spend the money that might educate them in trying to teach a man whose only peculiarity is his dishonesty. Besides, any instruction continuous enough to be effectual is quite inconsistent with any plan founded, as our plan is founded, on the principle of making a gaol a place to which its inmates will have every possible inducement not to return; and any instruction effectual enough to benefit the criminal on his release is inconsistent with another principle on which our plan is founded, namely, the making a gaol a place to which those who have never been in it, should have every inducement not to go.”

“If,” continue the committee, “in any country, a small minority only are educated, and if by far the greater number of offenders belong to that minority, money spent on educating such offenders may, in such a country, not be thrown away; although it may be questionable, even there, whether it would not have been more advantageously spent in educating the same people before they had offended. But, under the circumstances of India, money so spent would at best be thrown away; wherever it would tell at all, it would act as a direct premium on vice.”

Both committees further disapproved of all attempts to make proselytes in gaols, but recommended the provision of better religious instruction for Christian prisoners.

I shall return to this subject, when speaking of the statistics of the education of the criminal population of Lower Bengal.

Habitual Offenders.—In spite of stringent laws and strictly regulated prisons, there will always be a certain class “whom no experience will teach, no punishment amend, no encouragement induce to abandon evil habits, but who [will continue to] follow crime with all the eagerness of a pursuit, till it has landed them in the penal settlement, or brought them to the foot of the gallows.”

In advanced countries this class may be banished in perpetuity, or so harassed as to compel its members to leave their country; but such a result can scarcely be looked for in India, where predatory tribes and hereditary castes of criminals are added to the list of those who prey habitually on society from determined predilection for crime.

The Indian penal code authorises the transportation for life of a certain class of offenders against property, who, by a repetition of crime, are classed in the category of professional criminals.

For hereditary offenders, such as the Indian gypsies, who are homeless wanderers, and live by theft, the formation of penal colonies was recommended, in which they could earn an honest livelihood, far removed from all their old associations. Penal settlements on the continent of India have been tried for such offenders, and have failed, because they could not prevent the return of the criminal to his old haunts and associations.

The committee also recommended that every prisoner sentenced to more than seven years’ imprisonment, should be banished from the continent of India—to undergo the last four years of their sentences—the first three being passed in a central gaol in India.

Tickets-of-Leave.—The committee were averse to tickets-of-leave, as interfering with the inviolability of judicial sentences, and as being a species of device to get rid of some of the many evils attendant on long sentences. They hoped that short sentences and their rigorous fulfilment would render all such devices unnecessary.

Classification of Convicts was regarded as of importance, in

preventing the contamination of the less depraved by the more depraved criminals, and ensuring that a man should go out of prison, if unreformed, at least not worse than he was when imprisoned.

The first great division recommended was founded on the assumption that offences against the person and offences against property are dictated by a different class of motives and impulses; the former indicating the existence of ungoverned passions, the latter the absence of moral restraint. These again were to be subdivided according to the gravity of the offence.

The four divisions thus constituted would stand as follows:—

I. Offences against the person—

(a) With premeditated malice.

(b) Without premeditation.

II. Offences against property—

(a) Robbery or theft with aggravating circumstances.

(b) Simple theft.

The subdivisions of the above were to be determined by—

I. Sex. Males to be separated from females.

II. Age. Juvenile offenders to be separated from adults.

III. Religion. Christians to be separated from non-christians.

IV. Nature of punishment—

(a) Condemned prisoners.	} To be separated from all other
(b) Life prisoners.	

The prisons should be so constructed as to admit of these separations; and each class should have a distinctive prison dress, so as to be immediately recognisable.

The remainder of the recommendations of the committee related to the necessity of securing proper persons for prison officers, by the payment of sufficient salaries; the regulation of fines imposed on prison officers for breaches of duty; the importance of providing suitable accommodation for European prisoners in every district and central gaol; and the urgent need of introducing in India a proper system of judicial statistics. The French system was strongly recommended, as complete in detail and clear in arrangement. For prisons, the returns determined to be essential by the International Statistical Congress, held in London in 1860, were urged, to secure uniformity, and admit of comparison with the records of other countries.

I have endeavoured for some time to collect such statistics, as my printed reports for the past ten years show. This has been an extremely difficult task, from various circumstances which I do not deem it necessary to detail, but which have at length been overcome. I hope in future to obtain and place on record every class of prison fact deemed necessary for the purposes of legislation, by the Congress

above referred to ; but I need scarcely inform the Statistical Society that such a record, however complete and perfect in itself, will throw little real light upon many of the most important circumstances connected with crime and criminals, unless supplemented by a sound and comprehensive system of judicial statistics, and by a correct census of population. Neither of these exist at present ; yet all the means of collecting them are in the possession of the Indian Government, and it is to be hoped that the present reproach on the subject will, ere long, be removed. I have lost a whole month's continuous labour in scrutinizing the police and judicial administration reports of the Lower Provinces, in a vain attempt to extract from them a consistent view of the criminal statistics of the population who furnish the inmates of the prisons subject to my supervision. These reports contain a vast amount of interesting and often valuable information, but so ill digested, drawn up in such different ways, with no fixed system of record, and no real basis of calculation as to population, that I have been unable to draw any conclusions from them on which reliance could be placed. I have not, therefore, reduced them for presentation to this Society, as I hoped to have been able to do when I commenced my task.

The Government of India has sanctioned the formation of central prisons, in which all criminals of more than one year of sentence are to be subjected to a well-regulated system of discipline, unattainable in the existing district gaols ; and I have no doubt that the measure will, in time, produce the fruit expected of it—diminution of crime and reformation of offenders, so far as such reformation is possible in the existing state of society in India.

This leads me to the next point of interest in connection with Indian prisons, viz., the peculiar characteristics of Indian criminals and the principal classes from which their ranks are recruited.

III.—*General Characteristics of Indian Prisoners.*

In estimating the probable effects of any plan of prison discipline and penal restraint, it is necessary to take into account the character of the criminal classes to whom they are applied. In Europe this is easier, and less complicated than it is in India. Some writers on the subject have gone the length of declaring that the natives of India are destitute of all moral feeling, because perjury, forgery, official corruption, and the whole category of offences against public justice are rife among them, and are not regarded with the same feelings of aversion as they are in most Christian countries. Upon this the Prison Discipline Committee of 1838 justly remarked, that “in looking back on the time that is past we think that we see enough to account for the low tone of feeling which prevails amongst the inhabitants of India, without resorting to the extreme supposition

“ of a general and hopeless depravity in moral sentiments amongst so
“ considerable a portion of the human race.”

That the commission of crime generally is not deemed to be so disgraceful by natives of India as it is by the majority of Englishmen, is undoubted; and it may fairly be attributed to ages of misgovernment and oppression, to the facility of commission, and difficulty of detection, of many of the most common offences, to the system of entire castes who inherit a criminal career, and pursue it as others do a lawful calling, and to the existence of persons bound together by no hereditary tie, whose profession is the commission of the most appalling crimes. The thugs, and professional poisoners, are the worst examples of the latter, the dacoits, or gang robbers, the best. Even these people had and have codes of morality of their own, and in most matters, not directly connected with their calling, are probably not much worse than the bulk of the community among whom they reside. As a rule it may, I think, be safely asserted, that “an Indian criminal is probably a better man than any other criminal of the same sort.”*

Again, the prevailing crimes of different parts of India differ nearly as much as their soil and climate, and the national character of their inhabitants.

Heinous offences, since its annexation, are said to be comparatively uncommon in the Punjab—thuggee to be extinct, and gang robbery nearly unknown. Riots and affrays are not numerous, and when they happen usually arise from passion and impulse, seldom from premeditation and revenge. Murder is the most common of the heinous crimes, not for purposes of spoliation, but from the uncontrolled impulse of a people peculiarly sensitive to injury, and ready to revenge it. The same may be said of the rajpoots, and of many of the higher castes and classes in Oudh, and even of some classes of the population as low down as the province of Behar. Among all these people, woman is usually a *teterrima causa* of crime—jealousy, and the rage consequent on it ending too often in the murder of the weaker party. In Lower Bengal wife murder is probably as frequent, but from no chivalrous impulse.

Cattle theft, again, is an endemic crime in all the pastoral districts of India which afford facilities for its commission, and consequently present difficulties in its detection. In the Punjab it assumes the dignity of an honourable calling, in proof of which an eminent authority on the subject has recorded, that boys are taught to earn their first turban by the theft of a buffalo or a cow. In that province, under the vigorous rule of the Lawrences and Sir Robert Montgomery, it has been the subject of special legislation, and a com-

* “Prison Discipline Committee of 1838,” p. 97.

bination of fine, flogging, and imprisonment are said to be rapidly reducing it.

The bulk of the criminal population of most parts of India consists, however, of burglars and thieves, and the cause of this is easily determined. Houses are extremely insecure, there being usually but a mud or a mat wall to oppose the entrance of a robber. Money is scarcely ever invested—probably never by the bulk of the community—and the wealth of the majority is kept in the form of coin or of gold and silver ornaments, for the melting of which the crucible of the receiver of stolen goods is always ready. The temptation to steal, from the facility of concealment and ease of execution, is consequently irresistible to the idle and dissipated, who abound in most Indian communities, and are nowhere more numerous than in Lower Bengal.

From the natural timidity of the inhabitants, their inability and unwillingness to defend themselves or their property, and the temptation afforded by the isolated position of the houses of many of the wealthy landholders, gang robbery is a frequent and successful crime in many parts of the Lower Provinces. It is seldom or never committed by natives of Bengal, or by the inhabitants of the district in which it occurs. The dacoits are almost always strangers from Oudh, Behar, and even from more distant provinces. Before its annexation, Oudh was undoubtedly the chief source of supply of this bold, determined, and lawless class of criminals. Whether resisted by the armed retainers of those whom they attacked and despoiled, or no resistance was offered, they were cruel, and destroyed without hesitation any who crossed their path, or whom they believed to be capable of identifying them: hence murder, mutilation, and arson are the general accompaniments of their raids. They are well organised, conduct their plans with much dexterity, and disperse so rapidly after the accomplishment of their plans that few know at the time whence they came and whither they have gone. The reports of Sir Wm. Sleeman, and of the various officers who succeeded him in the Dacoity Department, are full of interest, and contain incidents of romance, compared with which the Turpins, Jack Sheppards, and other heroes of the English highways are very vulgar ruffians. Sometimes they travelled as the suite and escort of a princess or rajah on a pilgrimage to holy shrines, and spared no expense in barbaric splendour suitable to their supposed mission. At other times they represented merchants, or sepoy on furlough to their homes, or any other characters likely to conceal their purpose and disarm the suspicions of the authorities through whose districts they passed. They obtained accurate information of all treasure likely to be sent from one part of the country to the other, and of all valuable property accessible to sudden attack, and their

plans were carefully concerted often for months before their execution.

The river robbers of Eastern Bengal, who may fairly be regarded as fresh-water pirates, are also numerous, a source of much mischief to river traffic, and difficult to apprehend and convict. The inhabitants of many parts of the eastern districts dread them greatly.

The class of professional poisoners is also numerous, and I believe usually travel as faquirs or religious mendicants. When I was chemical examiner to the Government, numerous packages of poisons carried by these persons were sent to me for examination, and I generally found them to contain aconite, stramonium, white arsenic, corrosive sublimate, *lal chittra*, and similar substances, with the criminal uses of which they are well acquainted.

As a rule, in Bengal, the majority of persons convicted of misdemeanours are agriculturists or landed proprietors; and most of those convicted of burglary, theft, and the higher offences, are usually tradesmen, mechanics, domestic servants, or people of low caste, such as *gwallas*, *domes*, *dosads*, &c.

To enter further into this subject would not only exceed the limits of space and time allotted to me, but be foreign to the immediate object of my paper. My sketch, superficial as I admit it to be, is intended to show how extremely difficult it is to devise any scheme of prison discipline that will adapt the punishment to the crime and the criminal, and thereby tend to repress crime by measures calculated to counteract the causes in which it originates.

This subject has been so frequently discussed in Europe, without any practical result, that I am unwilling to enlarge upon it beyond reiterating my conviction that the difficulties of dealing successfully with crime by penal and reformatory measures in India, are much greater than they are at home, and that they require to be studied with more care and attention than have heretofore been bestowed upon them. Among the best means of throwing light upon the subject is, undoubtedly, the collection of accurate and extended judicial statistics.

My statistics for the five years 1860-64 inclusive show that the chief classes from which the criminal population of the Lower Bengal is recruited are agricultural labourers, coolies, domestic servants, petty landholders, and small shopkeepers.

From the tillers of the soil, the numbers of the inmates of the prisons under my charge are very great. Their numbers being in—

		Committals.
1860	27,578	out of 52,068
'61	28,692	„ 49,667
'62	31,501	„ 58,135
'63	31,999	„ 59,563
'64	34,027	„ 63,360

or very nearly half the whole prison population. This is somewhat higher than the average mentioned in M. Duchatel's report of 1844, as the result of a quarter of a century of observation in France. As a rule, the agricultural population of Bengal are absolutely ignorant, and the amount of crime among them depends very much on the nature of the crops. Again, when the harvests are ripe for reaping, thefts are most numerous; and in years of scarcity crime of all kinds, against person as well as against property, is most abundant.

The class of day labourers rank next to the field workers in numbers, ignorance, and crime. Their numbers were in—

1860	7,312
'61	6,422
'62	8,648
'63	7,346
'64	10,505

or a fraction more than 14 per cent. of the whole number committed to prison. Their crimes, and the causes of their crimes, are very much the same as those of the agriculturists, with whom they are very closely allied in circumstances and position. They also, as a body, are ignorant of instruction in any form.

Next to, but not very much below, the day labourers are the domestic servants, of whom the numbers in the years mentioned were as follows:—

1860	5,434
'61	5,310
'62	6,261
'63	6,435
'64	5,243

From this class come the greatest number of regular petty thieves; crimes against the person being comparatively rare among them.

Immediately following the domestic servants, but at a considerable distance, are a class of small shopkeepers, called moodies, whose occupation is to sell food—grain, pulses, spices, and condiments. Their numbers were, in—

1860	1,054
'61	1,426
'62	1,405
'63	1,393
'64	1,835

Their crimes are likewise chiefly theft, fraudulent weights, cheating, falsification of food, &c.

The petty landholders furnish a little more than 1 per cent. of the criminal population, and among them crimes against the person

are more frequent than crimes against property. Boundary disputes, with cattle trespass and theft of crops, are frequent among them.

The handicraft class, corresponding to our mechanics, are usually in better circumstances, better educated, and, in consequence, less criminal than the three first named classes.

Among the curiosities of the criminal records of the five years, which are the basis of my paper, are a poet, a songster, an astrologer, an indigo planter, a ship captain, an engineer, two tea planters, a solicitor, and a prince.

Vagrants and prostitutes add very little to the criminal population—the priests in gaol being more numerous than the two together. Of the last-named there were, in—

1860	177
'61	172
'62	240
'63	254
'64	170

These men are for the most part dissolute, idle, and, although not entirely ignorant, are not possessed of much education. My records do not show, nor are there any documents in existence in the judicial department to exhibit, the connexion between density of population and crime.

Of the classes who live by crime, such as thugs, dacoits or gang robbers, and professional poisoners, the first-named have very nearly disappeared, if they are not quite extinguished by the operation of the special agency employed to hunt them down.

I regret to be unable to show what proportion the committals of each class bears to the class itself, or what is the relation of committals to the whole population, either as regards town or country, area, or density of population, sex, age, or occupation. The reason of this I have already stated.

IV.—*Prisoners in Custody and their Disposal from 1860-61 to 1864-65.*—(TABLES I—V.)

The two most prominent points of interest in the tables are the apparent increase in the number of committals, and the very large proportion of acquittals.

In 1836, the area of the Lower Provinces of the Bengal Presidency was estimated to be 174,854 square miles, peopled by 38,817,874 persons, or in the proportion of 222 to each square mile. In that year 65,626 persons were committed to gaol, of whom 33,984 were convicted. The ratio of offenders to population was 1 in 591, and of convictions 1 in 1,142 souls.*

Colonel Sykes, in his paper on Criminal Justice in India, pub-

* "Speed's Criminal Statistics of Bengal," a work of very doubtful authority.

lished in the Transactions of this Society for May, 1843, estimates the population at 39,957,561, or, in round numbers, forty millions of souls. In 1837, the same authority states the number of convictions to have been 38,902, or 1 in every 1,028 persons. In 1840 the convictions were 42,785, or 1 to 935 souls. These include police cases.

In my tables, which exclude all petty police cases and include all *bonâ fide* committals to prison, the numbers are:—

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Committals	48,626	58,135	59,536	63,360
Convictions	27,064	30,424	30,842	30,311
Acquittals.....	14,311	18,914	19,338	22,360

I am not quite sure of the absolute accuracy of my return of committals, as I have reason to believe that some of the individuals have appeared twice in the returns when transferred from the subdivisions to the district gaols. These cases, if they occur, are, however, few in number, and will not materially affect the results. The return of convictions and acquittals is, however, liable to no such error.

Assuming Colonel Sykes' estimate of the population of Bengal to be sufficiently near for all practical purposes, the proportion of convictions to population has considerably diminished of late years.

All these calculations, however, in the absence of a correct census, are such mere guesses at the truth, that little real value can be attached to them. For example, in "The Statesman's Year Book "for 1866," the area of Bengal is assumed to be 280,200 square miles, and the population to amount to 41,498,608 souls. I do not know whence these figures are obtained, but I am quite certain that the population of the Lower Provinces is over-estimated, and that it has not increased in the last few years, in consequence of the ravages of a very destructive form of fever for the last four or five years, and of the number of coolies who have emigrated in the same time. The famine in Orissa has also contributed to the decrease of population, although, from my knowledge of that province, I hope and believe that the loss of life has been considerably overstated.

The acquittals were numerous, having been—

1861	14,311
'62	18,919
'63	19,338
'64	22,360

These figures have little value in themselves, in the absence of the police and judicial statistics, by which alone they can be properly explained. The detection and proof of crime in India are at all times extremely difficult. Part of this difficulty is rightly attributed to the nature of native testimony, accompanied, as it usually is in Bengal, with an utter disregard for truth, and the impossibility of framing any oath, affirmation or declaration, that is binding on the consciences of those who appear in the criminal courts. Much is due to the sympathy of large classes of the population with criminals, a cause which, in more civilised countries, is attended with a similar result. The ties of caste and brotherhood in such cases are rarely broken, and never voluntarily. Again, false swearing is a marketable commodity; any amount of it can be purchased at reasonable rates by the unscrupulous, for any purpose whatever. Few persons of the lower castes can be got to give testimony against a Brahmin, to screen whom is considered a laudable and a moral act. The influence of landholders over their dependents is all-powerful, and is seldom enlisted on the side of truth and justice; probably never when they are themselves concerned in the matter in hand, as too frequently happens in boundary disputes and agrarian crimes generally.

The effects of climate in speedily destroying identity, aided by birds and beasts of prey, and the rapid running rivers into which hundreds of bodies are thrown without any criminal intent, also add to the difficulty in numberless cases, and render it more than probable that a large number of crimes against the person are either never detected or cannot be brought home to the perpetrators. The corruption of the police, although last is assuredly not least in the category of difficulty, as I have had some personal opportunities of knowing.

I am, however, one of those who consider that, in the matter of truth and honesty, the Bengalis are neither better nor worse than many nations boasting of a higher civilisation and a purer faith, and that they in no degree merit the wholesale condemnation with which they are generally visited by those who write and talk much, and really know very little of them. Some of the wild tribes—Kols and Sonthals—although little better than savages, are remarkably truthful; and education has, in other parts of the Lower Provinces, done so much to improve the morals and manners of those brought within its influence, that a few years will, I am firmly convinced, produce a marked difference in the character of the people, of which the immediate effect will be the diminution of crime, and the more easy administration of justice.

V.—*Sickness and Mortality of Prisoners in Bengal for the same Period.*—(TABLES VI—XI.)

Sickness and death unfortunately play so important a part in the economy of the prisons of the Lower Provinces, that a large amount of time and attention are, of necessity, bestowed upon the subject. If the records were kept with the minuteness and care necessary, it would be abundantly evident that much disease and consequent loss of life, are due to causes over which mere sanitary measures can exercise little control. Indian prisoners as a body are exceedingly dissipated, and in such a state of health at the time of imprisonment as to bear confinement extremely ill, and to succumb readily to morbid agencies that are innocuous to those whose frames are not reduced by riot and debauchery. I have caused records of the health of prisoners on admission and discharge to be kept for some years, and although they are not drawn up with the detail and exactness required for statistical purposes, they show that at least 10 per cent. of the persons committed to gaol in Lower Bengal are in bad health, and that a considerable proportion of these labour under mortal diseases to which they rapidly fall victims when imprisoned. This is a matter beyond our control. By far the greater number of deaths is, however, due to preventible causes, such as overcrowding, bad drainage, imperfect ventilation, and improper conservancy arrangements.

The tables which I have prepared show that the death-rate for every hundred of the average prison population ranged from 6·17 in 1864 to 13·29 in 1860, giving a mean mortality-rate for the lustrum of 9·05 per cent.

In France, in the period from 1836 to 1849, the mean death-rate was 7·44 per cent., and in the five years between 1850 and 1855-6 28 per cent.: in the five years from 1856-1860 it was 6·04 per cent.

The proportion of sick to strength in the Bengal gaols oscillated between a minimum of 154·52 per cent. in 1861, and a maximum of 190·76 per cent. in 1860. The fluctuation in the percentage of deaths to treated was still greater, viz., 3·80 in 1864 and 6·97 in 1860.

The mean death-rate of men and women respectively from 1861-64 were 8·73 for the former and 3·40 for the latter, calculated on the average number of each class in custody. Women in Bengal bear imprisonment much better than men, from their more sedentary habits, their greater seclusion, and their greater freedom from the effects of vice and excess, when at large.

As respects religion, Christians are the most healthy in prison, Mahommedans come next, the Hindus are third in the scale, and the other denominations, which include Kols, Sonthals, and the Hill Tribes generally, die in greatest number.

As regards the period of incarceration, the greatest risk to life is during the first year of imprisonment to both term and life prisoners. Once the prisoners survive the earlier risks, and become accustomed to a gaol life, they are more capable of resisting its destructive influences, until among convicts sentenced for life many attain a very advanced age, and die of natural decay.

With reference to the ages at which death occurs, there is considerable fluctuation. For the three years specified in my table the greatest mortality was between 30 and 60 years of age.

These records will have to be collated for many years, and the ratio of deaths to be calculated for less than decennial periods before any definite conclusions can be arrived at.

In 1863 and 1864 the convicts employed in out-door labour died in greater proportion than those engaged in in-door labour; and little less than 6 per cent. of the average number of prisoners under trial died in those years.

The classes of criminals who die in greatest numbers, and the death-rate on the average number of each class in prison, are shown in the subjoined table:—

	1863.	1864.
	Per cent.	Per cent.
Thieves	10·09	6·92
Dacoits	17·54	6·85
Murderers	7·90	5·02
Burglars	8·63	2·84
Cattle stealers	5·53	3·24

These five classes represented more than 50 per cent. of the whole mortality of those years. This result has obtained for some years, and is undoubtedly due to the habits of the classes mentioned prior to imprisonment.

As regards occupation, before they become the inmates of gaols, the agricultural population and coolies perish in greatest numbers, both relatively and absolutely. Next to them are the domestic servants, from whom the class of thieves is very largely recruited.

The diseases that are most fatal in the Bengal gaols are dysentery, diarrhœa, cholera, fevers, and phthisis. Dysentery and diarrhœa kill the greatest number, and after them cholera. In the ten years from 1854 to 1863, 1·86 per cent. of the deaths were caused by cholera, and 8·12 per cent. by all other diseases together. The mortality rate for that period having been 9·98.

Were it not that I have already exceeded the limits of space allowed to me, my records would enable me to show the influence of season upon sickness and mortality, the fluctuations of the death-rate from cholera and from other diseases, the exact amount

of effect caused in each gaol by the presence or absence of cholera, and other points of interest, regarding which it seems to me to be of importance to collect and record facts for future guidance. In such matters no amount of detail can be rightly regarded as useless because no present practical deduction can be drawn from it.

My last table exhibits the gaols under my charge in the order of healthiness in 1864, and the difference between the mortality of that year and the death-rate of the previous decade. From the table it will be seen that the oscillation of the mortality-rate was between 0·99 and 18·47 per cent. of average strength, or mean prison population.

The extraordinary errors which appear to have been committed by the recent Cholera Conference held at Constantinople, exhibit in the strangest manner the urgent need of collecting exact statistics of disease and mortality in Eastern countries; and I believe prison returns at present afford the only really reliable information on the subject. My returns in this respect are I believe the most detailed and exact in existence in any country.

VI.—*Reconvictions.*

The returns for relapse of crime have only recently been kept in Lower Bengal, and are not yet sufficiently exact or extended to throw much light on the subject. In 1863, 419 persons were reconvicted, of whom no less than 222 were thieves; and of these 219 were again found guilty of theft. Of burglars, 22 were reconvicted of the same crime.

In 1864, the recommitments amounted to 595, of whom 282 had previously been punished for theft, 20 for burglary, 61 for bad livelihood (vagrancy), 41 for assaults, 12 for gang robbery, 22 for cattle stealing, 26 for criminal breach of contract.

The chief crimes for which they were reconvicted were, for theft, 284; burglary, 24; vagrancy, 45; lurking house trespass, 32; 10 for riot, 24 for assaults, 17 for receiving stolen property, &c.

The greater number were resented for short periods, and of the whole number 383, or two-thirds, relapsed into crime within one year of their discharge from prison, showing that imprisonment had effected no deterrent influence on them.

The data in existence at present regarding reconvictions in my circle of superintendence are, however, too scanty and imperfect to permit of any practical inferences of value being deduced from them.

VII.—*Escape and Reapprehensions.*

Of the average number of prisoners in custody about 1·80 per cent. escape, and 35 per cent. of the runaways are recaptured. The chief cause of the facility and frequency of escape is undoubtedly

the extreme insecurity of many of the prisons, some of which have mud, and a few mat, walls. A curious fact connected with the recapture of the gaol-breakers is, that the majority are retaken at their own homes. The longing to revisit his family is to a Bengali a stronger feeling than the fear of being retaken. When he has been able to see his home again, should he escape detection, he is usually content to disappear until he is forgotten. During the pursuit of the mutineers in the Oudh teraie, or jungle bordering the base of the Himalayas, in 1858, a large and prosperous colony of escaped convicts was discovered. They had settled there for many years, and had cleared and cultivated the land on which they had squatted. Large numbers of them must have perished in the first instance; the remainder had become acclimatized in a situation ordinarily so dangerous to life, and consequently so little frequented, that their very existence was unknown beyond the limits of the convict population.

VIII.—*Cost of Prisoners.*—(TABLE XII.)

In the nine years of my incumbency, from 1856-57 to 1864-65 inclusive, the average number of prisoners in custody was 164,827. The cost for clothing, guarding, hospital charges, contingencies, and the executive establishments of the gaols, was 632,154*l.* In 1862, the guarding of the prisons began to be made over to the civil constabulary then organized, in consequence of which the regular prison establishment entertained for that purpose was gradually dispensed with. The cost for police guards, who take no part in the general management of the prisons, and are charged exclusively with the duties of watch and ward, from 1862-63 to 1864-65, was 34,257*l.* The cost of repairs and additions to the prisons was 53,462*l.*, up to 1863-64, the returns for public works for 1864-65 not having been received in my office when the calculations of the year were made up. The cost of general superintendence was 36,392*l.* The entire cost, therefore, amounted in whole numbers to 756,267*l.* This gives a gross average annual cost of each prisoner of about 4*l.* 11*s.*, including every head of charge.

From this should be deducted the income of the prisons from all sources (net profits on gaol industry, and amount allowed for labour of convicts on prison buildings), 262,687*l.*, the net cost of maintenance was therefore 493,560*l.*, or about 3*l.* a prisoner. Thus very nearly one-third of the whole outlay for prisons in the Lower Provinces was returned to the State, by the profitable industry of the prisoners sentenced to labour.

If to the above calculations be added 20,000*l.* for buildings in 1864-65, taking the actual outlay of the most expensive year for my

estimate, the gross and net cost of each prisoner, calculated on the average, must be increased by about 15s.

When these figures are compared with the cost of prisons and prisoners in Great Britain, and every allowance is made for the widely different circumstances of the two countries, I think it will be admitted that economy has been carried to its utmost limits in the prisons under my charge. It should be remembered that, in Lower Bengal, the cost of labour, of food, of clothing, and of every necessary of life has, from the unexampled prosperity of the country, been more than doubled in the last twenty years. The food of a prisoner in Lower Bengal in 1815, cost 1*l.* 10*s.*; in 1825, 1*l.* 9*s.*; in 1835, 1*l.* 16*s.*; in 1845, 2*l.* 10*s.*; in 1855, 2*l.* 1*s.*; and in 1865, 2*l.* 10*s.*; while the real market value of the food in the last year had risen at least 50 per cent. above the cost of the same articles in 1845. The same may be said of clothing, bedding, building materials, and of nearly every article required for a prison.

IX.—*Education and Reformation of Prisoners.*—(TABLE XIII.)

In the last five years, from 1860-64 inclusive, of the prisoners committed to gaol in Bengal, 92 per cent. were absolutely ignorant, 6·75 per cent. could read and write, and the remainder were fairly educated for their position in life.

The amount and extent of influence of education upon the diminution of crime has not yet been fairly established even in civilized countries. In France two-fifths of the persons accused of crime are from its most ignorant, the agricultural population, but that population represents more than two-fifths of the whole body of the people. After the cultivators, in the same country, the most numerous recruits of the criminal classes are those who work up the products of the soil, who represent a fourth of the whole number of criminals.

The proportion of those accused of crime against the person from the educated classes is 416 in 1,000, against 408 in 1,000 of cultivators of the soil. The two classes who are least frequently accused of crimes against the person are traders (170 in 1,000) and persons without any fixed calling (the *gens sans aveu* of the French code, the *bad livelihood* class of the Indian penal code), 240 in 1,000.

Eleven-twentieths of all the persons tried in the criminal courts of France from 1826 to 1856 inclusive were entirely ignorant. This was the mean of twenty-five years of observation, but each quinquennial period isolated, exhibited changes showing the progress of education in France. Of 1,000 individuals accused of crimes against the person, an average of 535 could neither read nor write; of the same class 562 per 1,000 were accused of crimes against property. The diminution in the proportional number of the uninstructed was

more marked in regard to crimes against the person than in relation to crimes against property. The cause of this appeared to be that, from 1846 to 1850, those accused of theft were less numerous than from 1826 to 1830, while the number of forgers had sensibly increased. The latter are all more or less instructed. Many among the former are entirely ignorant.

Monsieur Boudin, from whose valuable work on statistical geography the above details are borrowed, exclaims: "On s'étonne souvent de voir le crime augmenter avec l'instruction. Mais qu'est ce donc que l'instruction sans l'éducation, sinon une arme de plus pour le mal. Sans religion, la morale a-t-elle seulement une raison d'être."

" Quis enim virtutem amplectitur ipsam
Præmia si tollas."*

Upon the subject of religious instruction in Indian gaols, my opinions have undergone no change since 1862, and without such instruction I am satisfied that education as an instrument of moral reformation is utterly inefficacious. As an agent, and a powerful agent of discipline, I am disposed to concur in the view of the matter taken by the Indian Prison Discipline Committee of 1864.

I regard industrial training as by far the most efficient means of reformation for Indian prisoners. The true principles that should regulate prison industry do not appear to me to be well understood. The first condition undoubtedly is, that it should be hard work, suited for sentences of rigorous imprisonment. The next, that it should be some form of handicraft easily learnt by the ignorant agricultural population of the country; the last, that it should be profitable, and assist in repaying to the State the cost of maintenance of the convict, and thus from an unproductive consumer convert him into a profitable self-supporter. In addition to this, each of my labouring convicts has his share of out-door work in the gaol garden, partly to counteract the scorbutic tendency of sedentary in-door work, in part to supply the prison with a constant variety of wholesome fresh vegetable food, and in some measure to teach them improved modes of cultivation, which they will not be slow to turn to account on the termination of their imprisonment.

Three of the prisons under my charge are entirely self-supporting, and two others were rapidly becoming so when I left India.

X.—*Bengal Gaol Code.*

The earliest prison rules for India were drawn up in Bengal more than fifty years ago. Subsequently to this, special rules were framed for the Alipore gaol. At a later period, all the rules and

* Juvenal.

regulations regarding prison management in Bengal and the North West Provinces were incorporated in a valuable digest of the "Criminal Law of India," by Mr. Beaufort of the Bengal Civil Service. In the last edition of this work, all existing rules and regulations were brought up to date by me, and published in a separate form for the use of the department under my charge in 1857.

In 1858, a gaol manual was prepared in the Punjab, by the inspector of prisons in that province, in which was contained an excellent body of practical rules for the guidance of officers in charge of the prisons under his control.

In 1863 a manual of gaol discipline and economy was published at Agra, for the use of officers in charge of prisons in the North West Provinces. It was prepared by the inspector-general of prisons in that province, and was by far the most complete and perfect body of rules then in existence in India.

Early in the same year I prepared a special prison code for the Lower Provinces, which was referred for report by the Government to a special committee of judicial officers. My rules, with the report of this committee, were again referred, early in 1864, to a sub-committee of the Prison Discipline Commission, who over-ran them very carefully, and sent them up to the Government with such alterations and additions as they deemed necessary, in April, 1864. Of this sub-committee I was a member.

My rules were again scrutinized by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, in personal consultation with me, and, after this final revision, were promulgated in November, 1864, in accordance with the provisions of Act II of 1864, passed by the Bengal Legislative Council.

My rules make not the slightest pretension to originality. They borrowed freely from every available source all that I deemed worthy of adoption, and embody, in addition, the results of my own experience in prison management, on a scale that has not fallen to the lot of any other officer who has devoted special attention to that branch of judicial administration.

Among the provisions of interest contained in them are rules regulating the proportion of labour of the three classes—hard, medium, or light, or first, second, and third class—and rewards for well-conducted prisoners, together with the introduction of a modified plan of intermediate imprisonment, based on the Irish system. These rules have been too short a time in use to permit of my expressing an opinion as to their practical value. So far as the construction and constitution of the prisons in the Lower Provinces admitted of their introduction, they have worked well; but their full use needs a much more complete organisation than exists at present, or is likely to be attained for some years to come.

XI.—*Concluding Remarks.*

The general conclusions which my experience of prisons in Bengal has led me to, are :—

1. That the silent and solitary systems are altogether inapplicable to Indian prisoners, and if applied would fail, as they have failed wherever they have been rigorously enforced.

2. That separation at night is essential for all Indian criminals, and that no question of expense of buildings should prevent its immediate introduction for all persons convicted of serious offences. It is required in the interests of morality, for the maintenance of health, and for the efficient punishment of crime, which will not be secured by any system of classification or plan of buildings that does not secure to each individual isolation at night.

3. That a prison should be rendered a terror to evil doers, by inflicting as much of pain as can be inflicted without injury to health of body or mind, and without resorting to punishments that err from excess of severity.

This, to a native of India, is best accomplished by subjecting him to the discipline of hard and constant labour, and to the total privation of all indulgences to which he attaches value and importance, and which can be withheld without injury to health.

4. That punishments for breaches of gaol discipline should be summary, should be in the power of prison authorities to inflict, and should be such as are known to deter most effectually. No restrictions of diet, solitary confinement beyond seventy-two hours, or other practices injurious to health, should be permitted or practised.

5. That prison dietaries should be restricted to the smallest quantity and coarsest quality of food found to be absolutely necessary for the maintenance of health in confinement. That these dietaries should be constructed as much as possible upon the dietaries of the classes and races to which the criminals belong when at large.

6. That however desirable it may be to maintain the inviolability of judicial sentences, it is absolutely necessary to hold out to the Indian prisoner the same inducements to good conduct in prison as are found necessary in other countries—for which reason they have been introduced into the Bengal Gaol Code, in opposition to the opinion of the Prison Discipline Committee of 1864.

7. That, bearing in mind, and subordinating it strictly to the primary object of imprisonment—the punishment of the offender—every effort should be made to render prisons self-supporting, which, in Bengal, is best accomplished by making them penal schools of industry.

8. That prison buildings should be so constructed as to maintain a high standard of health, and to admit of such classification and separation of convicts as will secure them from avoidable contamination, and send them forth on the completion of their sentences, if not better, at least not worse than they went in.

9. That while, on the one hand, no measures of discipline should be enforced which are really offensive to the religious prejudices of natives of India, no false pleas of caste should be permitted to interfere with the full execution of judicial sentences.

10. That short sentences, rigorously enforced in secure and properly constructed prisons, are more deterrent than longer sentences passed in district gaols, where the means of enforcing discipline do not and never can exist. In other words, that convict prisons should be separated from district gaols, and be so constructed and managed as to secure all the conditions of punishment in the highest degree.

11. That prison returns in India should be kept on a uniform system, and should embrace every detail necessary to throw light upon the subject in all its relations; and that these returns should be published annually, as soon after the close of the year as possible.

That the results of prison discipline and management should be tabulated and analyzed at the end of every five years, in the manner and on the plan of the French quinquennial reports.

That the prison reports and statistics should be the complement of a sound and detailed system of police and judicial statistics, without which their interest and importance are very much diminished.

12. That the broad general principles which should regulate prison discipline in India, differ in no way from the principles adapted for other countries, and merely need such modifications of detail as may be required by local circumstances. These modifications need never, so far as my experience entitles me to express an opinion, set aside the principle on which they are based. The principles of human nature, which connect disgrace with crime and punishment, are universal; and although the shame and discredit attached to conviction and imprisonment are not at present as strongly felt and exhibited in India as they are supposed to be in more advanced countries, I have not the least doubt, from my long and intimate acquaintance with the educated and criminal classes of Bengal, that, as education extends, and the 93 per cent. of un-instructed criminals diminishes, the feelings of Bengalis will not differ very materially from those of Englishmen on the subject of crime, its disgrace, and its punishment.

I cannot conclude my sketch of prison discipline in Bengal more appropriately than in the eloquent words of the Indian Prison Discipline Committee of 1838:—

“ Our conclusion is, that there is no reason to doubt that the
 “ administration of criminal law derives, in India, great support from
 “ the feelings of the people, and that, as the law, and the adminis-
 “ tration of the law improve, that support will increase indefinitely.
 “ We see, therefore, every reason for improving the law and its
 “ administration here, that the wisest and the best men have seen
 “ for doing so in other countries ; and, looking upon prison discipline
 “ as a part of the administration of the law, and a most important
 “ part of it, we believe that every argument which applies in more
 “ fortunate countries in favour of the improvement of prison dis-

APPENDIX.

TABLE I.—*Statement as to length of Sentence*

Criminal Prisoners.	1860.			1861.		
	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.
Sentenced for life, with labour	374	32	406	472	16	488
Sentenced, as above, with- out labour.....	3	—	3	1	—	1
			409			489
Sentenced for more than 2 years, with labour.....	2,998	50	3,048	2,573	45	2,618
Sentenced, as above, with- out labour.....	89	1	90	37	—	37
			3,138			2,655
Sentenced for 2 years and above 1 year, with labour	1,862	23	1,885	1,670	28	1,698
Sentenced, as above, with- out labour.....	183	2	185	184	2	186
			2,070			1,884
Sentenced for 1 year and under, with labour	10,705	312	11,017	12,009	345	12,354
Sentenced, as above, with- out labour.....	9,308	182	9,490	8,281	136	8,417
			20,507			20,771
Sentenced to be confined until security be given, with labour	133	—	133	573	2	575
Sentenced, as above, with- out labour.....	72	3	75	50	—	50
			208			625
Sentenced to be discharged without security, after a limited period, with labour	683	2	685	480	1	481
Sentenced, as above, with- out labour.....	36	—	36	88	—	88
			721			569
	26,446	607	27,053	26,418	575	26,993

“ cipline, applies with equal force in this country (India) in favour
 “ of such a measure. A difference of circumstances may render
 “ different means necessary; a particular plan which may, in some
 “ other countries, be beneficial, in this country may possibly be
 “ useless or injurious, and means available elsewhere may here be
 “ beyond our reach, but the measure of benefit to be derived by
 “ the people from any given degree of general improvement in this
 “ department is, we are convinced, fully as great in India as it is in
 “ those wealthy and enlightened nations in which the most attention
 “ is paid to it.”

APPENDIX.

Criminals convicted in the Years mentioned.

1862.			1863.			1864.		
Males.	Fe- males.	Total.	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.
582	38	620	589	32	621	418	39	457
1	—	1	7	—	7	—	—	—
586	49	2,635	2,364	52	2,416	2,293	45	2,338
69	4	73	23	1	24	89	2	91
359	29	2,388	2,208	33	2,241	2,582	46	2,628
226	8	234	154	7	161	112	1	113
942	458	15,400	16,734	541	17,275	17,723	599	18,322
152	168	6,320	5,144	163	5,307	3,638	149	3,787
194	6	200	151	—	151	185	2	187
194	1	195	252	—	252	255	2	257
365	—	365	122	—	122	79	2	81
347	2	349	452	—	452	249	—	249
017	763	28,780	28,200	829	29,029	27,623	887	28,510

TABLE II.—*Release Statement. The Prisoners released by expiry of Sentence or otherwise, were—*

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Acquitted after trial by the magis- terial authorities	15,913	12,160	16,267	17,229	20,012
Acquitted after trial by the sessions judges	2,010	2,335	2,357	1,860	2,152
Acquitted by the sudder and high courts	181	154	218	149	163
Liberated by order of Government ...	88	60	83	110	33
Released on expiry of sentence	19,442	20,287	22,095	24,304	26,722
„ on payment of debts	993	1,088	1,684	2,177	1,386
„ for exemplary conduct.....	12	6	77	10	—
„ on account of sickness.....	127	70	88	208	39
	36,766	36,160	42,863	46,047	50,507

Note.—The above is exclusive of those who died and escaped from custody.

TABLE III.—*Religion.*

1. The religion of the criminals was as follows:—

Religion.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Hindus	28,281	27,746	34,821	35,701	39,750
Mahomedans	18,475	20,508	21,661	22,664	21,271
Other native sects	2,777	1,229	1,426	926	1,535
Christians	163	184	227	237	764
Total	49,696	49,667	58,137	59,536	63,360

Note.—In the above table is included every person committed to prison for civil as well as criminal offences.

TABLE IV.—*Castes of Hindus.*

2. The castes of the Hindus were—

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Gwallas	3,011	3,092	3,922	4,601	3,466
Kyburto8	2,370	1,763	1,963	1,726	1,778
Brahmins	1,653	2,022	2,622	3,137	3,142
Kaistes	1,494	1,916	2,216	2,539	2,309
Rajpoots	1,347	1,220	1,520	917	1,462
Bagdies	1,253	1,289	1,689	2,826	2,016
Rajwars	879	872	972	694	600
Aheers	831	586	886	872	1,082
Domes	768	577	841	712	768
Chundals	724	963	1,063	1,014	1,416
Dosads	494	729	959	463	1,142
Podes	452	347	547	210	None returned
Koormies	442	541	718	924	
Kahars	420	318	518	712	531
Tanties	371	375	557	465	461
Chamars	347	313	512	809	1,140

And 110 other castes, in numbers ranging between two religious mendicants at the bottom of the scale, and 224 telees, 212 workmen, 208 barbers, 176 goldsmiths, 130 boatmen, 105 gardeners, 92 carpenters, 88 blacksmiths, and smaller numbers of several other denominations. In 1860 and in the succeeding years, the numbers of the minor castes fluctuated considerably, but never attained the dimensions of those mentioned above.

TABLE V.—*Sects of Mahomedans.*

3. The sects of the Mahomedans were—

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Sunnis	10,130	9,686	10,570	11,010	9,254
Sheeahs	372	270	311	291	748
Sheikhs	6,789	9,286	9,672	10,200	10,525
Ferazees	907	1,049	898	909	603
Syuds	30	60	71	62	38
Moghuls	1	5	14	12	—
Pathans	206	152	125	180	103
Jolaks	40	—	—	—	—

4. The prisoners of other denominations were chiefly Kols, Sonthals, Hill Men, Cacharees, Mugh8, Garrows, a few Chinese, Burmese, and the frontier tribes of Assam; some of whom are Buddhists, and many are without any known religious belief.

5. The Bengal prison returns do not estimate the exact numbers of Protestants, Roman Catholics, and Nonconformists. In Calcutta the majority of the Eurasian criminals are Roman Catholics.

TABLE VI.—*Hospital Statistics.*

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Aggregate number of prisoners of all classes, sick and well.....	6,700,935	6,384,800	6,370,596	6,558,817	6,663,161
Daily average of the above	18,348	17,476	17,406	17,957	18,176
Aggregate number treated in hospital	35,001	27,006	29,053	30,081	29,516
Daily average	95·8	73·9	79·5	82·4	80·8
Number discharged cured	26,402	22,156	23,962	24,612	23,017
„ of deaths	2,440	1,535	1,306	1,711	1,122
Number remaining under treatment on the 31st of December.....	1,005	1,052	989	1,003	855
Ratio per cent. of treated to strength	190·76	154·52	166·91	167·52	162·38
Ratio per cent. of discharged to treated	75·43	82·04	82·47	81·81	77·98
Ratio per cent. of deaths to treated	6·97	5·68	4·49	5·68	3·80
Ratio per cent. of deaths to average strength	13·29	8·78	7·50	9·52	6·17

TABLE VII.—*Deaths of each Sex.*

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Males.....	2,402	1,504	1,288	1,679	1,091
Females.....	38	31	18	32	31
Total	2,440	1,535	1,306	1,711	1,122

The ratio of each on the mean number of males and females in custody was—

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Males.....	No record	8·60	7·64	9·67	6·22
Females.....	„	0·18	3·24	5·38	4·81

TABLE VIII.—*Rate of Mortality at the Respective Ages.*

Ages.	1862.			1863.			1864.		
	Average Numbers Living.	Deaths.	Rate of Mortality per Cent.	Average Numbers Living.	Deaths.	Rate of Mortality per Cent.	Average Numbers Living.	Deaths.	Rate of Mortality per Cent.
Under 20 years of age	548	19	3·47	842	14	1·66	2,267	29	1·27
From 20 to 30 „	5,240	228	4·35	5,325	229	4·30	4,372	235	5·37
„ 30 „ 40 „	5,999	480	8·00	4,641	655	14·11	4,984	401	8·04
„ 40 „ 50 „	3,245	289	8·90	3,083	384	12·45	2,815	240	8·52
„ 50 „ 60 „	1,462	161	11·01	1,798	235	13·07	2,053	124	6·03
„ 60 „ 70 „	678	82	12·08	1,318	127	9·63	1,018	59	5·79
„ 70 „ 80 „	175	42	24·00	615	51	8·29	403	27	8·69
Above 80 years of age....	59	5	8·47	335	16	4·77	264	7	2·65
All ages	17,406	1,306	7·50	17,957	1,711	9·52	18,176	1,122	6·77

TABLE IX.—*Period after Confinement at which Death occurred.*

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
<i>Term Prisoners—</i>					
For 3 months and under	511	310	298	390	275
„ 6 „ above 3 months	321	212	188	277	176
„ 1 year and above 6 months	496	326	248	383	248
„ 2 years and up to 5 years	1,023	614	467	521	339
„ 5 years „ 10 „			57	82	62
Above 10 years			11	15	7
Total	2,351	1,462	1,269	1,668	1,107
<i>Prisoners Sentenced for Life—</i>					
In confinement for 6 months and under	44	42	20	26	5
Above 6 months and up to 1 year			8	11	4
„ 1 year and up to 2 years			1	2	2
„ 2 years „ 5 „	4	4	5	—	—
„ 5 „ „ 10 „			1	1	2
„ 10 „ „ 20 „			2	—	2
„ 20 „ „ 30 „	21	9	—	1	—
„ 30 „	7	7	—	2	—
Total	89	73	37	43	15
Grand total	2,440	1,535	1,306	1,711	1,122

TABLE X.—*Deaths Classed according to Religion.*

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Hindus	1,560	1,007	789	1,152	684
Mussulmans	582	439	481	520	412
Christians	10	6	1	1	7
Other denominations	288	83	35	38	19
Total	2,440	1,535	1,306	1,711	1,122

The deaths calculated on the daily average strength of each class, were—

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Hindus	No record	3·63	7·85	10·67	6·46
Mussulmans	„	2·14	6·99	7·49	5·99
Christians	„	3·26	1·88	3·57	2·01
Other denominations	„	6·75	7·99	18·26	5·09

TABLE XI.—The Death-Rate of 1864, as compared with that of the preceding Ten Years, arranged in the order of the Healthiness of the Prisons in the Lower Provinces.

Gaols.	Daily Average Strength	Mortality in 1864.						Average Mortality during the Ten Years Preceding 1864.			Difference between 1864 and the previous Decennial Average.					
		Deaths from			Ratio of Deaths.			Ratio of Deaths.			In Ratio of Mortality by Ordinary Diseases.		In Ratio of Mortality by Cholera.		Actual Increase or Decrease.	
		Ordinary Diseases.	Cholera.	Total.	By Ordinary Diseases.	By Cholera.	Total.	By Ordinary Diseases.	By Cholera.	Total.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.
Deoghur	101	1	—	1	0·99	—	0·99	No	data	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Maldah	72	1	—	1	1·38	—	1·38	5·36	0·69	6·05	—	3·98	—	0·69	—	4·67
Sylhet	359	7	—	7	1·94	—	1·94	5·02	1·60	6·62	—	3·08	—	1·60	—	4·68
Chittagong ...	330	7	—	7	2·12	—	2·12	5·01	0·36	5·37	—	2·89	—	0·36	—	3·25
Bograh	180	3	1	4	1·66	0·56	2·22	1·67	0·55	2·22	—	0·01	0·01	—	—	—
Goddah	45	1	—	1	2·22	—	2·22	No	data	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Great Gaol of Calcutta ..	86	1	1	2	1·16	1·16	2·32	1·81	0·11	1·92	—	0·65	1·05	—	0·40	—
Tipperah	408	9	1	10	2·21	0·24	2·45	4·18	0·24	4·42	—	1·97	—	—	—	1·97
Beerbhoom	284	7	—	7	2·46	—	2·46	6·00	1·23	7·23	—	3·54	—	1·23	—	4·77
Lohardugga ..	288	8	—	8	2·77	—	2·77	10·63	2·30	12·93	—	7·86	—	2·30	—	10·16
Hazareebaugh	453	13	—	13	2·86	—	2·86	7·30	1·35	8·65	—	4·44	—	1·35	—	5·79
Behar	366	10	1	11	2·73	0·27	3·00	13·37	1·53	14·90	—	10·64	—	1·26	—	11·90
Dacca	490	15	1	16	3·06	0·20	3·26	4·08	0·91	4·99	—	1·02	—	0·71	—	1·73
Balasore	214	7	—	7	3·27	—	3·27	6·02	1·01	7·03	—	2·75	—	1·01	—	3·76
Nowgong ...	91	3	—	3	3·29	—	3·29	4·54	1·59	6·13	—	1·25	—	1·59	—	2·84
Noakholly ...	231	6	2	8	2·59	0·87	3·46	2·26	0·38	2·34	0·33	—	0·79	—	1·12	—
Midnapore ...	590	13	8	21	2·20	1·35	3·55	6·76	3·34	10·00	—	4·56	—	1·99	—	6·55
Furreedpore ..	418	14	1	15	3·34	0·24	3·58	3·18	0·44	3·62	0·16	—	—	0·20	—	0·04
Nuddea	402	12	3	15	2·98	0·75	3·73	3·74	0·04	3·78	—	0·76	0·71	—	—	0·05
Durrung	209	8	—	8	3·82	—	3·82	4·56	0·12	4·68	—	0·74	—	0·12	—	0·86
House of Correction of Calcutta ..	563	20	2	22	3·55	0·35	3·90	5·47	0·69	6·16	—	1·92	—	0·34	—	2·26
Monghyr ...	367	16	—	16	4·35	—	4·35	14·99	3·23	18·22	—	10·64	—	3·23	—	13·87
Singbhoom ...	214	10	—	10	4·67	—	4·67	7·06	0·75	7·81	—	2·39	—	0·75	—	3·14
Howrah	127	5	1	6	3·94	0·78	4·72	10·91	0·19	11·10	—	6·97	0·59	—	—	6·38
Tirhoot	446	23	1	24	5·16	0·22	5·38	7·73	2·59	10·32	—	2·57	—	2·37	—	4·94
Maunbhoom ..	212	7	5	12	3·30	2·36	5·66	6·22	1·36	7·58	—	2·92	1·00	—	—	1·92
Kassiah Hills	17	1	—	1	5·88	—	5·88	11·50	1·92	13·42	—	5·62	—	1·92	—	7·54
Bhaugulpore ..	362	12	10	22	3·31	2·76	6·07	12·28	9·01	21·29	—	8·97	—	6·25	—	15·22
Shahabad ...	524	29	3	32	5·53	0·57	6·10	8·81	1·66	10·47	—	3·28	—	1·09	—	4·37
Burdwan ...	438	21	6	27	0·79	1·37	6·16	7·17	1·30	8·47	—	6·38	0·07	—	—	6·31
Alipore	1,839	97	19	116	5·27	1·03	6·30	12·01	1·32	13·33	—	6·74	—	0·29	—	7·03
Deegah	78	5	—	5	6·41	—	6·41	No	data	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Baraset	139	9	—	9	6·47	—	6·47	6·50	0·10	6·60	—	0·03	—	0·10	—	0·13
Chumparun ...	210	11	3	14	5·23	1·43	6·66	7·40	0·90	8·30	—	2·17	0·53	—	—	1·64
Sarun	458	30	1	31	6·54	0·22	6·76	8·25	1·92	10·17	—	1·71	—	1·70	—	3·41
Mymensing ...	515	35	—	35	6·79	—	6·79	7·57	1·46	9·03	—	0·78	—	1·46	—	2·24
Bancoorah ...	409	12	16	28	2·93	3·91	6·84	5·91	1·01	6·92	—	2·98	2·90	—	—	0·08
Jessore	563	14	25	39	2·48	4·44	6·92	2·90	0·67	3·57	—	0·42	3·77	—	3·35	—
Seebaugor ...	130	9	—	9	6·92	—	6·92	5·28	0·26	5·54	1·64	—	—	0·26	1·38	—
Patna	473	25	9	34	5·27	1·91	7·18	5·05	1·85	6·90	0·22	—	0·06	—	0·28	—
Cuttack	372	24	3	27	6·44	0·81	7·25	7·51	1·09	8·60	—	1·07	—	0·28	—	1·35
Rajshahye ...	414	14	18	32	3·37	4·35	7·72	8·15	3·04	11·19	—	4·78	1·31	—	—	3·47
Hooghly	503	33	7	40	6·56	1·39	7·95	11·36	4·08	15·44	—	4·80	—	2·69	—	7·49
Gowalparah ...	149	10	2	12	6·71	1·34	8·05	11·45	5·26	16·71	—	4·74	—	3·92	—	8·66
Rungpore ...	347	27	1	28	7·77	0·29	8·06	14·64	0·48	15·12	—	6·87	—	0·19	—	7·06
Kamroop ...	157	11	2	13	7·01	1·27	8·28	6·75	2·98	9·73	0·26	—	—	1·71	—	1·45
Purneah	550	47	1	48	8·54	0·18	8·72	8·69	5·80	14·49	—	0·15	—	5·62	—	5·77
Pubna	174	6	10	16	3·44	5·75	9·19	4·75	0·79	5·54	—	1·31	4·96	—	3·65	—
Darjeeling ...	54	3	2	5	5·55	3·70	9·25	10·74	0·76	11·50	—	5·19	2·94	—	—	2·25
Moorshedabad	204	19	—	19	9·31	—	9·31	8·76	3·61	12·37	0·55	—	—	3·61	—	3·06
Rajmehal ...	169	2	14	16	1·18	8·28	9·46	No	data	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cachar	210	14	7	21	6·66	3·31	9·97	4·41	2·09	6·50	2·25	—	1·22	—	3·47	—
Debrooghur ..	125	13	—	13	10·40	—	10·40	6·95	2·94	9·89	3·45	—	—	2·94	0·51	—
Dinagopore ...	466	41	37	78	8·79	7·94	16·73	11·87	1·37	13·24	—	3·08	6·57	—	3·49	—
Backergunge ..	525	79	18	97	15·04	3·43	18·47	8·54	2·94	11·48	6·50	—	0·49	—	6·99	—

TABLE XII.—*Gross and Net Cost of Prisoners in the Lower Provinces, June, 1856-57 to 1864-65 inclusive.*

Years.	Average Number of Prisoners.	Gross Cost of Maintenance.					Average Gross Cost per Prisoner.	Deduct Income of the Gaols from all sources.	Net Cost of Main-tenance.	Average Net Cost of Main-tenance.	
		Cost of Food, Clothing, Burkundauze and Executive Establishments, &c.	Cost of Civil Constabulary Guards.	Cost of Public Works Executed by the Public Works Department.	Cost of General Superintendence.	Total.					
		R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R. A. P.	R.	R.	R.	A. P.
3-57	19,151	7,83,915	—	39,744	39,252	8,62,912	45 - 11'2	1,31,652	7,31,259	38	2 11'3
4-58	18,890	8,03,180	—	25,095	38,853	8,67,130	45 14 5'6	1,49,678	7,17,451	37	15 8'2
5-59	20,282	8,83,919	—	34,952	41,214	9,60,086	47 5 4'6	1,51,401	8,08,684	39	13 11'4
6-60	19,003	7,95,109	—	41,207	39,355	8,75,672	46 1 3'5	2,08,331	6,67,340	35	1 10'5
7-61	17,001	6,62,165	—	34,443	38,965	7,35,574	43 4 3'1	3,80,114	3,55,460	20	14 6'3
8-62	16,598	5,54,832	—	45,220	35,543	6,35,596	38 4 8'3	4,47,190	1,88,406	11	5 7'4
9-63	17,761	5,72,937	43,879	1,11,357	39,710	7,67,885	43 3 9'0	3,64,662	4,03,223	22	11 2'9
10-64	18,180	5,66,510	1,41,865	2,02,610	43,724	9,54,710	52 8 2'7	4,52,088	5,02,622	27	15 8'9
11-65	17,961	6,98,969	1,56,830	Not received	47,308	9,03,108	50 4 6'0	3,41,750	5,61,358	30	14 0'5
Total	164,827	63,21,540	3,42,575	5,34,632	3,63,928	75,62,676	45 14 1'4	26,26,870	49,35,806	29	15 1'5

TABLE XIII.—*Education.*

The state of education of the prisoners committed in the several years mentioned is subjoined.

Years.	Fairly Educated for their Position in Life.				Able to Read and Write.				Entirely Uninstructed.				Whole Number Com- mitted in each Year.
	Number.			Proportion to whole Number Com- mitted.	Number.			Proportion to whole Number Com- mitted.	Number.			Proportion to whole Number Com- mitted.	
	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.		Males.	Fe- males.	Total.		Males.	Fe- males.	Total.		
60....	870	5	877	1·76	3,268	1	3,269	6·58	44,252	1,298	45,550	91·66	49,696
61....	578	—	578	1·17	3,508	5	3,513	7·07	44,310	1,266	45,576	91·76	48,626
62....	688	—	688	1·18	3,660	5	3,665	6·31	51,980	1,802	53,782	92·51	58,135
63....	575	1	516	0·97	3,683	6	3,689	6·19	53,310	1,961	55,271	92·84	59,536
64....	742	1	743	1·17	4,271	4	4,275	6·74	56,023	2,319	58,342	92·08	63,360

FREE TRADE *in* BANKING.*By* COLONEL W. H. SYKES, M.P., F.R.S., &c.

[Read before Section F, British Association, at Nottingham, August, 1866.]

I.—*America.*

W. WELLS BROWN, an escaped slave, was sent from America to Paris as a delegate at the celebrated Peace Convention of 1849. He was three years in Europe, and published an account of his travels and observations. As the book may scarcely, if at all, be known in England, it may be permitted to read an extract from it, in illustration of the facilities for banking in America, that may not be without its effect upon our free traders in money and banking in England. Mr. Brown commences with an account of a visit to the Bank of England.

“The same party with whom I visited Windsor being supplied with a card of admission to the Bank of England, I accepted an invitation to be one of the company. We entered the vast building at a little past twelve o’clock to-day. The sun threw into the large halls a brilliancy that seemed to light up the countenances of the almost countless number of clerks, who were at their desks, or serving persons at the counters. As nearly all my countrymen who visit London pay their respects to this noted institution, I shall sum up my visit to it, by saying that it surpassed my highest idea of a bank. But a stroll through this monster building of gold and silver brought to my mind an incident that occurred to me a year after my escape from slavery.

“In the autumn of 1835, having been cheated out of the previous summer’s earnings, by the captain of the steamer in which I had been employed running away with the money, I was, like the rest of the men, left without any means of support during the winter, and therefore had to seek employment in the neighbouring towns. I went to the town of Monroe, in the state of Michigan, and while going through the principal streets looking for work, I passed the door of the only barber in the town, whose shop appeared to be filled with persons waiting to be shaved. As there was but one man at work, and as I had, while employed in the steamer, occasionally shaved a gentleman who could not perform that office himself, it occurred to me that I might get employment here as a journeyman barber. I therefore made immediate application for work, but the barber told me he did not need a hand. But I was not to be put off so easily, and after making several offers to work cheap, I frankly told him that if he would not employ me I would get a room near to him, and set up an opposition establishment. This threat, however, made no impression on the barber; and as I was leaving, one of the men who were waiting to be shaved said, ‘If you want a room in which to commence business, I have one on the opposite side of the street.’ This man followed me out; we went over, and I looked at the room. He strongly urged me to set up, at the same time promising to give me his influence. I took the room, purchased an old table, two chairs, got a pole with a red stripe painted around it, and the next day opened, with a sign over the door, ‘Fashionable Hair-dresser from New York, Emperor of

the West.' I need not add that my enterprise was very annoying to the 'shop over the way'—especially my sign, which happened to be the most expensive part of the concern. Of course, I had to tell all who came in that my neighbour on the opposite side did not keep clean towels, that his razors were dull, and, above all, he had never been to New York to see the fashions. Neither had I. In a few weeks I had the entire business of the town, to the great discomfiture of the other barber.

"At this time, money matters in the Western States were in a sad condition. Any person who could raise a small amount of money was permitted to establish a bank, and allowed to issue notes for four times the sum raised. This being the case, many persons borrowed money merely long enough to exhibit to the bank inspectors, and the borrowed money was returned, and the bank left without a dollar in its vaults, if, indeed, it had a vault about its premises. The result was, that banks were started all over the Western States, and the country flooded with worthless paper. These were known as the 'wild cat banks.' Silver coin being very scarce, and the banks not being allowed to issue notes for a smaller amount than one dollar, several persons put out notes from 6 to 75 cents in value; these were called 'shinplasters.' The shinplaster was in the shape of a promissory note, made payable on demand. I have often seen persons with large rolls of these bills, the whole not amounting to more than five dollars. Some weeks after I had commenced business on my 'own hook,' I was one evening very much crowded with customers; and while they were talking over the events of the day, one of them said to me, 'Emperor, you seem to be doing a thriving business. You should do as other business men, issue your shinplasters.' This, of course, as it was intended, created a laugh; but with me it was no laughing matter, for from that moment I began to think seriously of becoming a banker. I accordingly went a few days after to a printer, and he, wishing to get the job of printing, urged me to put out my notes, and showed me some specimens of engravings that he had just received from Detroit. My head being already filled with the idea of a bank, I needed but little persuasion to set the thing finally afloat. Before I left the printer the notes were partly in type, and I studying how I should keep the public from counterfeiting them. The next day my shinplasters were handed to me, the whole amount being twenty dollars, and after being duly signed were ready for circulation. At first my notes did not take well; they were too new, and viewed with a suspicious eye. But through the assistance of my customers, and a good deal of exertion on my own part, my bills were soon in circulation; and nearly all the money received in return for my notes was spent in fitting up and decorating my shop.

"Few bankers get through this world without their difficulties, and I was not to be an exception. A short time after my money had been out, a party of young men, either wishing to pull down my vanity, or to try the soundness of my bank, determined to give it 'a run.' After collecting together a number of my bills they came one at a time to demand other money for them, and I, not being aware of what was going on, was taken by surprise. One day as I was sitting at my table, strapping some new razors I had just got with the avails of my 'shinplasters,' one of the men entered and said 'Emperor, you will oblige me if you will give me some other money for these notes of yours.' I immediately cashed the notes with the most worthless of the wild cat money that I had on hand, but which was a lawful tender. The young man had scarcely left when a second appeared with a similar amount, and demanded payment. These were cashed, and soon a third came with his roll of notes. I paid these with an air of triumph, although I had but half a dollar left. I began now to think seriously what I should do, or how to act, provided another demand should be made. While I was thus engaged in thought, I saw the fourth man crossing the street with a handful of notes, evidently my 'shinplasters.' I instantaneously shut the door, and looking out of the window, said, 'I have closed business for the day; come to-morrow and I will see you.' In looking across the street I saw my rival standing in his shop door, grinning and clapping his hands at my apparent downfall. I was completely 'done Brown' for the day. However, I was not to be 'used up' in this way; so I escaped by

the back door and went in search of my friend who had first suggested to me the idea of issuing notes. I found him, told him of the difficulty I was in, and wished him to point out a way by which I might extricate myself. He laughed heartily, and then said, 'You must act as all bankers do in this part of the country.' I inquired how they did, and he said, 'When your notes are brought to you, you must redeem them, and then send them out and get other money for them; and, with the latter, you can keep cashing your own shinplasters.' This was indeed a new job to me. I immediately commenced putting in circulation the notes which I had just redeemed, and my efforts were crowned with so much success, that before I slept that night my 'shinplasters' were again in circulation, and my bank once more on a sound basis.

"As I saw the clerks shovelling out the yellow coin upon the counters of the Bank of England, and men coming in and going out with weighty bags of the precious metal in their hands, or on their shoulders, I could not but think of the great contrast between the monster institution, within whose walls I was then standing, and the wild cat banks of America."

II.—*Manchooria.*

But the ingenious devices in the Western States of America for raising money have a parallel in Manchooria, in Tartary. Mr. Meadows, the British Consul at Newchang, in a recent report to the Foreign Office, which is published in the present month of August, gives an account of the population, industry, and commerce of Manchooria, and he devotes a chapter to the currency of the province, in which bank notes make a conspicuous figure.

"The notes (says Mr. Meadows) are in their size and main features much like English bank notes. They have an ornamental border, purposely made very elaborate in order to prevent forgery. The name of the issuing house, together with the unvarying portions of the date (with blank spaces left for the exact month and day of each) are printed in large characters. Instead, however, of receiving their final validation from a manuscript signature, it is given them, in accordance with Chinese official and trading custom, by means of elaborately carved seals, with which red ink is used. These notes are not issued solely, or even in large part, by the money-changing houses, which to a certain extent take the place here of our banks. Each commercial establishment and largish retail shop can issue notes. Formerly this was done only to the extent of one-tenth of the capital which the issuing house satisfied the great guild of the port-town that it had invested in its business, and after it had entered into an engagement for mutual guaranteeing. But, for two years past, the guild appears to have given up the attempt to regulate the paper currency, and at present there are 123 houses at this town which seem to issue notes at pleasure. The notes each promise to pay on presentation a certain number of teaous.* The smallest at this port-town are for 2 teaous, the largest for 50 teaous; at other towns and cities I have seen them for 100 teaous. A teaou, which in the south of China means 1,000 of the copper alloy coins, called 'tseen,' by the Chinese, and 'cash' by foreigners, means here 1,000 Kwan-tung seaou tseen—*i.e.*, 1,000 of the small cash of Kwan-tung. Kwan-tung signifying 'east of the passes'—*i.e.*, east of the great wall and its gates, corresponds to what I have called the Newchang Consular district, as composed of the three provinces of Manchooria and the settled portion of eastern Mongolia. Each city and large town of this region has its own circulation of these seaou tseen peau, or small cash notes; the notes of one city passing with difficulty

* About $9\frac{3}{4}d.$, or 50 equal to 2*l.*

at the next adjoining city, though on an average only thirty miles distant, and not passing at all beyond distances of forty to fifty miles. There is no coin corresponding to the name of Kwan-tung small cash; and a teaou or 1,000 of them are only equal to 160 of the general copper-alloy 'cash' of China. The latter are, in consequence, throughout this district strung on twine by means of the centre hole in sums of 160 cash, each of which sums is then called a teaou. Although the notes profess to be payable on presentation, in fact, each issuer is by custom bound to give in exchange only one-fifth in copper alloy 'cash,' the balance in notes of other issuing houses; to which the holder must then repair to repeat the process, so that when a man changes a note, say for 50 teaous, the value of which is little more than 2*l.* sterling, he has usually to visit about six or eight issuing houses in succession, some of which may be a mile distant from each other. The rate of exchange between the notes and silver bullion alters daily in each city, and is fixed by the body of money-changers, who meet every morning at daybreak to settle it. The rate during the past five years at this port town has averaged about 9 teaous for 1 tael, and has ranged from 7 80-100 teaous to 10 teaous."

III.—*China.*

The system of banking in China is given in detail in Justice Doolittle's "*Social Life of the Chinese*," recently printed in China, and, I believe, not yet available to the public of Europe. The following are extracts from the work:—

"*Banking, Bank-bills, and Cash.*—The native banks of Fuhchaufü are quite numerous, and the bank-bills in use are noted for their unique appearance, and for the difficulty of being successfully counterfeited. The banks are not under Government inspection or control. Any individual who has the capital, or a company of individuals who can furnish the necessary funds, may establish a bank and issue bills, without getting a charter or any kind of permission from the Government.

"A few years ago, the mandarins at Fuhchau issued bank-bills in behalf of the imperial Government, in consequence of the extreme scarcity of the common copper cash. The Government also issued iron cash, which at first were received as of equal value with the copper cash. But the iron coin soon was counterfeited in great quantities. It also became rusty. The Government bills, being payable in iron coin at par with copper, became very unpopular and greatly depreciated. The value of a dollar in Government bills or iron cash was at one time, in 1858, eighteen or twenty thousand cash. The Government finally bought up the iron cash and withdrew its bills from circulation, leaving the private banks to supply the paper currency as before.*

* "The invention and priority in the use of paper money by the Chinese is now generally admitted. Klaproth, Chaudoir, and others, have given details to some extent regarding the history of this currency. From native records we learn that it was first used by the imperial government in the ninth century, and was continued with intervals till near the close of the fifteenth; from which, down to recent times, no attempt has been made to revive the practice. The extensive use of promissory notes, however, in various parts of the empire, and the exhausted state of the imperial treasury, has suggested the desirability of another attempt, by this means, to relieve the state from the financial pressure, and after a cessation of four hundred years, government banks have again been opened in the large cities for the issue of a new paper currency. The success that has attended the experiment is not such as to promise a long continuance of this expedient."—See "*Coins of the Ta-Tsing, or present Dynasty of China*," by A. Wylie, Esq., laid before the Shanghai Branch of the Oriental Society, Nov. 17, 1857.

“Some of the banks are of long standing, and, as their proprietors are known to be very wealthy and sufficiently honest, their bills are in general use in the transaction of business. Their bills are of various denominations, as representing cash, dollars, or silver; and of various values, from four hundred cash, five hundred cash, six hundred cash, one thousand cash, &c., as high as several hundred thousand cash; from one dollar up to several hundred or even thousands of dollars; and from one tael of silver to hundreds or thousands of taels of silver. Experience proves that there is little comparative risk from counterfeiters. A bill is generally preferred to the cash which it represents, unless the owner wishes to make use of the value in the purchase of small articles, or for the purpose of making various payments with it. The real risk in the use of bills arises from the liability of the bank to fail suddenly.

“The outline of the bill, with various devices to make counterfeiting difficult, is engraved neatly on a solid block of brass in the case of wealthy banks; poor proprietors of banks use hard wood instead of brass. The right-hand margin is made an inch or more wider than the left-hand margin of the block of brass or wood, for a purpose which will be mentioned shortly. The value of the bill and the day of issue are filled in with the pen, and one or more words to facilitate the detection of a counterfeit. Various stamps, large or small, round, or square, or oblong, some of which are very curiously and elaborately engraved, are impressed on different parts of the bill, using red or blue ink. These add very much to the neat and pretty appearance of the note, and are believed usually to have some secret or private mark, and are very difficult to imitate with precision and exactness by counterfeiters.

“But perhaps the use which is made of the wide right-hand margin furnishes the greatest security against counterfeiting. On this margin are stamped or written various words, phrases, or sentences, before the bill is cut off or trimmed and put into circulation. When every thing is ready, these stamped or written sentences or phrases are cut through by a sharp knife, leaving the right-hand margin of the bill about the same width as the left hand, though it presents a very different appearance. Of course the edge of the right-hand margin of the bill and the edge of the paper which was cut off from it, will precisely match each other; but, as the sentences have been cut into two parts, part of the words and stamps will be on the bill and part on the slip of paper cut off. These slips are all carefully kept in a book form ready for reference, each slip containing the value, date, and private marks of the bill corresponding to it. On the presentation of a bill for payment, if there is the least doubt of its genuineness, reference is made to the corresponding proof-slip, and the banker or his clerks know immediately whether it is genuine or counterfeit. A successful imitation of the written sentences and words, the blue and red stamps, which are found on the right margin of a bank-bill, and which have been cut through on a line parallel with the left-hand margin, it is almost impossible to make so exact, precise, and minute as to fit the preserved proof-slip.

“When a new bank is opened, custom demands that the proprietors, the head directors or clerks of the principal neighbouring banks, and the principal money gobetweens who are connected with them, shall be invited to a feast at the expense of the proprietors of the new bank. Generally, after this feast, these neighbouring bankers, unless they have especial reason to distrust or be dissatisfied with the new banker, are willing to recognise the new bank, and use its bills, according to custom. The bank gobetweens also consider the new bank as now established, and do business with it on the usual terms, as with old banks in good and regular standing.

“The bills are all made payable on demand. If the holder of bills against a particular bank presents them for payment, he may be paid in cash, or the current bills of other banks, or in silver or gold, according to the current rate of exchange. It is not entirely at the option of the bill-holder what shall be the equivalent given him, but more at the option of the banker, especially in case of an emergency. As a general rule, however, the wishes of the bill-holder are complied with. Cash bills are usually paid in cash.

“It is an established custom in this place, that if a bank is not able to discharge its obligation immediately on the presentation of bills by redeeming them in some way, the holder of the bills may seize hold of any thing in the bank and take it off, to the full amount of his demands, *if he please to do so*, and there would be no liability for prosecution for theft or misdemeanor. Instances have occurred when some rascals and their accomplices have tried to find, or, rather, make occasion for rifling banks, by calling in a body and simultaneously presenting their bills with loud outcries and insulting remarks, and, by their improper conduct, have caused what seemed to be a temporary suspension of payment. Occasionally, at such times, a seeming pretext has been given through fear of actual robbery on the part of the bankers, and their assistants and clerks, for the crowd of rascals to pretend that the ready money in the bank was short, and that they were in danger of not getting their bills cashed, all which has resulted in their beginning to plunder the bank. And when an excited and interested crowd has begun such a work, it is exceedingly difficult to prevent the completion of the undertaking. There are plenty of beggars and idlers or vagabonds in the streets who are only too happy to assist in such an exciting and profitable sport as robbing a bank. Instances are not very rare when banks have been completely riddled of every portable thing worth carrying off, even to the sleepers and the rafters. Strictly speaking, according to custom, only those who have bills against the bank have any right to engage in helping themselves to the payment of their demands. In fact, however, the vast majority of those who engage in gutting a bank, under the plausible pretext of its not having money to redeem its bills, are those who have no bills against it, and who, in truth, are nothing but thieves and robbers.

“In the year 1855 there was an unusual panic among bill-holders. Several banks had just failed, that is, had been unable to redeem their bills on presentation, and had been robbed of everything in their offices by bill-holders and by the lower class of the populace, who joined them in plundering. The viceroy determined to make an example of a few, in order to avert impending anarchy and universal distrust. Early on a certain morning bills were presented for payment by many persons at a respectable bank located on the south street in the city. A large crowd assembled, and soon a robbery of the bank commenced by a multitude of persons. Several of these rioters who had no bills against the bank were arrested by the police, among whom were a poor chair coolie and a respectable neighbour of the bank, a dealer in rice. The viceroy, as soon as he heard of the circumstances, and of the arrest of these men, who manifestly had no plea but robbery for engaging in the ‘gutting’ of the bank, determined that they should be beheaded, without trial, at once, and in the street where the robbery was committed. His subordinate officers endeavoured to dissuade him from the sanguinary measure, fearing that the populace would rise *en masse*, and murder the mandarins, and inaugurate a revolution, should these men be thus beheaded; but the viceroy was firm, arguing that it was the best, if not the only means of preventing universal anarchy. He issued his warrant for their execution, and the wretches were immediately taken out into the public street in front of the bank and decapitated. All this occurred, and the report had spread all over the city and suburbs, before nine o’clock in the morning. The viceroy was correct in regard to the effect he said it would produce. The summary act at once quelled the disorderly rabble, and no such disposition to rob a bank contrary to custom—that is, by persons who, according to custom, had no right to embark in the pillage of a bank, because they had no bills against it—was manifested in this city or suburbs for a considerable time.

“Sometimes a rumour is spread abroad that a certain bank is in danger of breaking, or that it is being ‘run’—that is, bill-holders against it have become frightened for some reason, and are presenting the bills they happen to have for payment or redemption. At such times all, whether living in the city or suburbs, who have bills against it are in haste to bring them forward in time, lest the bank should really fail or be robbed in case ready funds should be exhausted. This rush of persons who really have claims against it adds to the confusion and excitement. On these occasions the friends of the bankers rally around to

aid in keeping order, and the idlers and vagabonds assemble in the contiguous streets, ready to assist should their services be in requisition to rob and tear down. Should the bank be robbed at such a time, such a fact frees the proprietors of it from all obligation to redeem their still outstanding bills, unless they should be pleased to redeem them. It is believed that most of those who engage in banking in this part of China are honourable enough to do their utmost to redeem their bills should they honestly fail or lose so much money in the business as to determine them to close their banks. Such persons usually have two words written in large characters posted up on a conspicuous part of the premises, which intimate that they will 'hereafter pay' or redeem their bills on presentation. This notification amounts to a request that those who have their bills will present them without delay for redemption. It also implies that they are desirous of closing up their business, and that they do not at present propose to issue any more bills of their own.

"Some bankers, when they find that there is danger that they will be 'run,' if they have reason to fear the result, adopt the precaution of publishing that they will 'hereafter pay.' After this precaution no gutting or running of the bank is permitted according to custom. Sometimes, after a running of the bank has commenced, the bankers manage to send a confidant to come to an understanding with a mandarin, who immediately sends his underlings to close the doors, and post large and long strips of paper on them in one or two places, in the form of the letter X. These strips have, among other characters, the name or title of the mandarin who orders them to be pasted up. The bank is regarded as sealed up by this process, and no running is allowed. After having been officially sealed up, they proceed to settle their accounts more at their leisure than they otherwise might have been obliged to do. It is hinted that the mandarin who assists them in the manner above mentioned is always willing, for a consideration, to lend them his influence. Gutting a bank is considered disgraceful, and therefore very undesirable by respectable bankers. Not unfrequently several bankers agree to help each other with money in case they are run.

"The Chinese, probably, are not a whit behind Westerners in speculating in the value of silver. The value of sycee or dollars, in cash or bills, fluctuates sometimes largely from one day to another, and even from hour to hour of the same day. This fluctuation is said to be managed principally by speculators in money, aided by the bank gobetweens and the proprietors of the principal banks. When they have reason to believe that a large sum of money has arrived or is about to arrive, owned by traders who desire to invest in produce, they manage to have the price of silver become lower than usual. On the other hand, if they know that there is a considerable quantity of silver in the shape of sycee required by Chinamen to take away to other parts, then the value of sycee or dollars, as compared with cash, becomes at once higher than usual. Speculators in money who have capital, resident at this place, of course take advantage of these changes and fluctuations to buy bills or silver when cheap and plenty, intending to sell them when dear and scarce.

"In ancient times, some emperors coined cash in the shape of a knife and other fanciful shapes. These are now highly prized as curiosities, and are not in general circulation as coins. Coins of modern times are round, with a small square hole in the centre. Ancient coins are used oftentimes as charms or amulets against evil spirits. Some kinds are used in divination.

"In 1850 a dollar was worth in bills or cash at this place 1,400 cash. In 1854 it was worth 1,750. It is now (August, 1863) worth 1,050. The large importation of silver, or its equivalent in value, to pay for the teas purchased at this port has kept down the price of dollars, and, consequently, in most branches of native trade there is very little business, because silver brought hither by Chinamen to purchase native products exchanges for so small an amount in cash or bills, in which the price of articles is usually reckoned here, that they cannot afford to change their silver into cash, and purchase what they desire to take away. They are sure of doing a losing business. When dollars or sycee command a high price at the banks, native business is brisk. A dollar or a tael purchases then much

more of native products than when the price of a dollar or of a tael is low. The price of native commodities does not fluctuate nearly as much as does the price of silver."

To the above I may add, from the same work, some very curious statements of the ingenious methods adopted by the Chinese for raising money by means of clubs to lend *without interest*.

"*Money-lending Clubs without Interest.*—It often occurs that an individual desires to have a certain sum of ready money to use, but which he finds himself unable to command. Instead of borrowing the sum and paying the exorbitant interest demanded by money-lenders, and instead of trying to raise the sum among his friends as a gift or as a temporary loan, he endeavours to induce them to form one of several kinds of clubs, the immediate object of which is to furnish him with the desired amount, but the future effects of which will be to supply the same sum to each one of its members without the usual heavy interest.

"He induces a trusty friend to become second or assistant, he being its head or principal. Having prepared a number of red envelopes, each containing a small sum of money, he calls upon his relatives and friends who are able to engage in the club, and who he desires should enter it, explains to them his plans, states the amount he wishes to raise, each member's share, and all needed particulars. Those who are willing to engage in the club receive one of these envelopes as a kind of bargain money, and after that they may not withdraw without his consent, or unless he fails to secure the required number of names. These are regarded by the customs of society as bound or pledged to perform their part in the contemplated union. In case of not succeeding in obtaining the requisite number of responsible names, the undertaking falls through.

"Many friends and relatives are willing to engage in a club to aid a person when they would not contribute to give the needed sum to him, and many are willing to try and form a union professedly for their benefit, when they would not receive money as a gift, and when they would be ashamed to ask their friends to contribute money for their use.

"*The Shaking Club.*—This club is thus named from the frequent tossing of dice by its members. The number of members is not fixed, varying from five to twenty or more. Suppose the sum to be raised is 100,000 cash, and the number of members is ten, each man's share will be 10,000 cash. Suppose the time for the payment of the shares is quarterly, there being ten payments, it will require two years and a-half before the business of the club will be perfected.

"The business is all managed by the head man and his assistant, and the meetings of the club are held at the house of the former, or at the place he appoints. He is at the expense of a feast for the members of the club the first time they meet, it being the time when he receives the sum of 100,000 cash, including the sum which he is supposed also to pay in, though really he does not provide it, but only receives 90,000 from the other members. At this first meeting no dice are thrown, it being well understood that the sum is to be taken by the head man.

"At the next meeting each member brings his 10,000 cash, which is given to the one who, on casting the dice, gets the highest number of spots, the head man and his assistant not engaging in the casting of dice, the latter, according to the rules generally adopted, taking his 100,000 cash at the third meeting of the club without any appeal to the dice.

"At the fourth and every subsequent meeting those who have not drawn the sum throw the dice according to the rules of the club, to decide who shall take the 100,000 cash. All who have previously drawn the sum, excepting the head man and his assistant, at any meeting of the club, are expected to contribute a small sum for the incidental expenses, as paper and refreshments.

"If anything is left unexpended at the close of the tenth meeting, it is consi-

dered as belonging to the man who has waited until this time, when he receives his 100,000 cash.

“ In this manner, provided each man fulfils his pledges, each man will have paid into the club 100,000 cash, and each have received back the same amount. While his payments will have been small and at intervals, the sum received back will have been at one time.

“ The principal drawback against this method of raising money is the great uncertainty of every man’s fulfilling his part according to the bye-laws of the club. These are fixed upon by the head man as regards times of payment, number of members, and amount of each instalment, at the time he gets it up. Sickness, misfortune, or death may prevent the payments of some of the members at the stipulated time. Such cases cause much trouble to the head man and others who have received their allotted money, who are held responsible by the other members. When the club breaks down in consequence of the inability of some members to pay in the sums agreed upon, those who have received money must return in small sums, and at intervals, if they cannot pay at once, the amount received *over and above* the sum they have paid into the club. In case of positive dishonesty on the part of one of its members, the head man is considered bound to make up the sum he ought to have paid. Each man, on receiving the sum paid in at one meeting, must give a document with the names of two men as his security, one a member of the club and one not a member, pledging himself to the proper fulfilment of his responsibilities in the case. Probably few cases of downright dishonesty occur in connection with these clubs, because the members are generally mutual and firm friends of each other, and especially of the head man.

“ Sometimes a club is got up among friends for comparatively very small sums, as in shares of two, four, or six dollars. Poor men who cannot raise the sum desired at once, but who can save enough to make a payment every quarter or oftener, sometimes engage in such clubs. In all cases, whether for large or small sums, whether the number of members be few or many, or whether the intervals between payments be monthly or quarterly, the same principle is kept in view, the obtaining of a round sum of money for use without the payment of interest, to be refunded in instalments at intervals.

“ *The Snake-casting-its-skin Club.*—This union or club is so called from the circumstance that the head man, the one for whose benefit the money is subscribed, pays it back to the members by regular instalments as may be agreed on when formed, just, as it is said, *the snake sheds or casts its skin gradually, or at regulated intervals.* There is no need of an assistant in the working of this club. The members subscribe and pay money but once. There is no division of this money among them; the head man takes it all for his own use when it is paid in, which is done at its first and only meeting. At this time he prepares a feast for its members. The money he then receives he agrees to refund to the subscribers of it at regular intervals, by uniform instalments, in the order decided on by the drawing of lots, or by the throwing of dice, at the time of its being paid in. Each member must wait until his turn arrives for receiving back the money he subscribed.

“ *The Dragon-headed Club.*—This club is named ‘*dragon-headed*’ because the first payments made by its members are much larger than subsequent payments, resembling, it is said, *the Chinese dragon*, in the circumstance that *its head is much larger than its body.* The number of shares, times of payment, &c., are arranged by the head man at the time he solicits the names of his friends as members.

“ Suppose the number of members is twenty, including the head man, and the first payment is 10,000 cash on the part of all but the head man, who advances nothing, but receives all that is paid in, the amount is 190,000 cash. In case the meetings are held quarterly, every three months after the first meeting the head man pays into the club 10,000 cash, and each one of the other members pays in 1,000 cash, making in all 29,000 cash. It is decided by the throwing of dice to whom this shall be paid. In this manner in five years from the commencement the head man

will have paid into the club 190,000 cash, the amount he received at its first meeting, and each of the other members will have paid in 29,000 cash, and have received back the same amount. The proportion between the first and succeeding payments agreed upon by the parties concerned, of course, will be the rule of any club."

I could indulge in reflections to some extent upon these statements, but I prefer commending them to the careful consideration of those who are advocates for free trade in banking.



*On the UNEQUAL PROPORTION between the MALE and FEMALE
POPULATION of some MANUFACTURING and OTHER TOWNS.
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[Read before Section F, British Association, at Nottingham, August, 1866.]

EVERY question connected with the condition and character of the female population in our country must have an especial interest. The health, the happiness, the morality, the religion of the present, and still more of the future generation, depend in great measure upon the influence exercised by its female portion. With their welfare and virtue, the national character and prosperity would improve in a two-fold degree. By their degeneracy, national character and prosperity would rapidly deteriorate. I am anxious, therefore, to call attention to a point which seems to me of considerable importance for the due appreciation of this subject.

It is well known that the female population of the country slightly exceeds the male; but, on the other hand, the number of male births exceeds that of female ones in the proportion (according to the Twenty-third Annual Report of the Registrar-General, for 1860) of 104·7 to every 100 girls.* This excess of males is reduced in various ways. Infant boys die in larger numbers than infant girls. The occupations of men expose them to greater dangers of accidental death or disease arising from exposure. A certain number of sailors and soldiers are always absent from the country on active service. Men emigrate in search of fortune more readily than women. Thus the proportion of births is almost exactly reversed by the proportion of population. The census of 1861 shows that there are in the country 105·25 women to 100 men, or an excess of 513,706 women. This proportion may be considered as natural, and, therefore, as perhaps a beneficial state of things.

But though this proportion is found on the total population of England and Wales, the case is very different when we come to examine it in detail. In certain counties and towns of England there are many more women than there are men; while in others, the men are in excess. For instance, in the *mining* counties of Derby, Durham, and Stafford, the males exceed, not only the average number, but are also considerably more numerous than the women;

* In 1853 it was 105·1 boys to 100 girls.

„ 1864 „ 104·2 „ 100 „

while in the manufacturing (*textile*) counties of Lancaster, Leicester, Nottingham,* and the West Riding the number of women is considerably in excess of the average. To illustrate this, I have prepared a table of most of the large and a few of the small towns in England, in which the proportion between the male and female population differs markedly from the average; and for the sake of comparison have also taken a few cases of average population. It will be seen that the table includes many of the neighbouring† towns and districts, because these present a local interest, and their circumstances will be more within the knowledge of my audience. Now, it appears from this comparison, that there is a marked excess of the male population in *mining* towns, such as Wolverhampton, Dudley, Wakefield, Belper, and Worksop: and also in *barrack* towns, Canterbury, Rochester and Chatham, Winchester and Colchester. There is also an excess of males in Sheffield, where the steel manufacture is the staple trade; a slight one in Stafford, owing to the manufacture of pottery; and a greater one in Burton, where beer is brewed. There is the most marked excess of females in the *watering places*, such as Brighton, Cheltenham, and Bath. This is owing to the large proportion of domestic servants, lodging-house keepers, and laundresses, who are employed by the number of gentlemen resident in or frequenting these towns. There is again a marked excess of females in *seaport towns*, such as Plymouth, Yarmouth, Bristol, and King's Lynn. Where ship-building is carried on at a sea port, as at Hull, the excess of females is not so great. This excess of females is owing to the absence of a large proportion of the male population as sailors in the merchant service. That this is the case is manifest from the example of Liverpool, where, between the ages of 15 to 45, there is an excess of females, while the males below and above those ages are the most numerous.

But the most important and interesting case of an excessive female population is that presented by the *manufacturing* towns. Here Nottingham and Norwich are most remarkable, the one owing to the women employed in the warehouses, the other by its manufacture of silk and shoes. In a less marked, but still large degree, the cotton manufacture, as at Manchester, Preston, and Carlisle; the worsted manufacture, as at Bradford and Leeds; the silk manufac-

* All the remarks made in this paper with respect to Nottingham (perhaps also in other cases) would be confirmed if the whole case could be shown together. But the census returns are calculated according to existing and artificial boundaries. Thus the town of Nottingham, for all practical purposes, includes what the census returns call Nottingham, Radford, and (in part) Basford. If these were taken together, an increased excess of the female population, with an equal proportion of corresponding evils, would become apparent.

† In the neighbourhood of Nottingham, where the paper was read.

ture of Derby ; the hosiery trade of Leicester ; the glove manufacture of Worcester, produce an excess in the female population. In many of these towns the excess of women is in part balanced by the prevalence of trades in which men are employed, as at Derby, where there are large railway works. In the agricultural districts of Notts and Derbyshire the proportion is an average one, except in some cases, where there are mines, producing a slight excess of males ; or lace and hosiery manufactures, producing a slight preponderance of females. The case of Birmingham is one (for a reason to be hereafter mentioned) worthy of attention as peculiar. Its population is almost the only one, among the largest towns of the kingdom, composed of the average number of males and females. This is owing to the fact that, while men are extensively employed in the iron and steel manufactures, finishing and packing employ a large number of female hands ; other women being also employed in button-making and jewellery. The reason for this excess of women in manufacturing towns, is thus very tersely stated by M. Jules Simon, in his interesting and important work entitled "*l'Ouvrière* :"—"Whereas the workman was once an intelligent force, he is now only an intelligence directing a force—that of steam ; and the immediate consequence of the change has been to replace men by women, because women are cheaper and can direct the steam force with equal efficiency." This cause will continue to work out increasing rather than diminishing effects, as machinery is more and more employed in new manufactures. Even now, the introduction of the sewing machine is gradually substituting the labour of women for that of men in the manufacture of shoes and boots.

To the important results which may attend on this increased employment of women, a writer in the "*Edinburgh Review*" (April, 1859, p. 294) calls attention :—"The conditions of female life have sustained as much alteration as the fortunes of other classes by the progress of civilisation. Sooner or later it must become known, in a more practical way than by the figures of census returns, that a very large proportion of the women of England earn their own bread ; and there is no saying how much good may be done, and how much misery may be saved, by a timely recognition of this simple truth." . . . "So far from our countrywomen being all maintained, as a matter of course, by us, the 'bread-winners,' three millions out of six of adult Englishwomen work for subsistence ; and two out of the three in independence. With this new condition of affairs new duties and new views must be accepted."—*Ibid.*, p. 336.

Now of these three millions of women there are a large proportion of whom the present consideration need take no account ;

because there is a tolerably equal demand for their labour in all parts of the country ; and therefore the average proportion between males and females is not disturbed. Thus, in 1861, there were 1,071,201* domestic servants, making in all more than one of the three millions of employed women. Under proper circumstances few peculiarities of our social economy contain greater elements of advantage than the custom which makes the largest class of Her Majesty's subjects into domestic servants. It enables a large proportion of young women, the future wives and mothers of the working class, to learn the thrift and good management oftener to be found in a good middle-class house than in a working-man's cottage. Constant intercourse with educated, refined, gentle people must exercise a civilising influence. Thus too, more than in any other way, can the friendly connection and mutual good understanding be maintained between the richer and poorer classes of society.

In the Census of 1861 (Table XVII) we find enumerated 286,298 milliners, and 76,015 shirtmakers, &c. This large class of female labourers is, however, scattered so equally through the country that it cannot exercise any disturbing influence upon the proportionate numbers of the sexes. The same remark will apply to 231,715, who are washerwomen (166,442) and charwomen (65,273). A very large proportion of females (farmers' wives, daughters, and servants) are engaged in agriculture ; but we need only mention the 43,964 agricultural labourers (Table XVII).

Then there is the large class of women especially referred to in this paper, who are described in the Census of 1861 as " V. Industrial " Class. Order 11. Persons working and dealing in the Textile " Fabrics and in Dress." They are, for the most part, assembled in factories and warehouses ; and all are, more or less, under similar conditions. They are thus enumerated :—

1.	Workers in wool and worsted	105,872
2.	„ silk	72,868
3.	„ cotton and flax	324,371
4.	„ mixed materials (1, 2, 3)	25,689
5.	„ in dress	277,826†
6.	„ hemp and other fibrous materials	5,813
Total.....		<u>812,439</u>

Though they do not come so immediately under present consideration, the 11,934 women engaged in the earthenware manufac-

* These figures are taken from Table XVIII, p. xl, of the census returns.

† This excludes the milliners, shirtmakers, and washerwomen previously referred to.

ture, and the 10,761 female nailmakers, may be mentioned. There are also 84,738 females engaged in teaching and 85,798 employed in providing board and lodging at inns and lodging-houses. These are, however, under somewhat different conditions from the rest.

It may be thought that great advantages arise from the power of independence thus placed in the hands of women, and the addition thereby given to the national prosperity. In great measure this may be so. But there are certain evils concurrent therewith, which may not be necessarily inherent in the system of aggregated female employment, but which are so actual and so considerable as to demand the most careful attention.

And *first*: These employments necessarily take a large number of married women from their homes for their daily labour. The charwomen will be mostly wives or widows. The agricultural labourers are many of them wives and mothers. I believe that in many factories a preference is given to unmarried women; but, nevertheless, a large number of married women are also so employed. Moreover, a great number of married women carry on employments in their own houses, which necessarily abstract their attention and labour from the duties of the family. I will not dwell upon the consequent derangement of family life, of a comfortless home, of ill-cooked food, of noisy children, of husbands driven to the beer-shop. These evils are on the one hand well-known and deeply regretted; and, on the other hand, they are not susceptible of statistical enumeration. But one evil result can be so set forth; and that is the increased proportion of juvenile deaths arising from parental neglect. All these combined results go far to prove that the money-getting employments of married women, especially when those employments are carried on away from home, are not so lucrative either to the individual families, or the nation at large, as may be generally supposed. The economy resulting from well-cooked food, from a mother's attention to her children's well-being, from care and repairs of the family clothing, and from the numberless small ways in which a woman can promote the comfort and happiness of a household, will, in itself, be a considerable saving of money, and a vast increase of happiness. This will necessarily tend to attach the husband and father to his home, and save great and wasteful expenditure of time, money, and intelligence in the beer-shop. The value to the nation of every life is considerable; very great gain would result from a diminished proportion of juvenile mortality, from the increase of health and strength in children nursed and cared for by a mother's constant watchfulness. The table I have prepared shows the proportion of juvenile mortality in a large number of towns. The results may not appear to tally exactly with my argument; but the seeming discrepancies are doubtless mostly

referrible to local causes, which may modify but not destroy its truth.

Thus it appears that in the mining towns of Dudley and Wolverhampton, and the steel manufacturing towns of Birmingham and Sheffield, the infant mortality is very high. In Dudley and Wolverhampton it approaches 60 per cent. of the whole number of deaths in the years 1853 and 1864. In Birmingham and Sheffield in the same years about half the deaths are below 5 years of age. In many of the textile manufacturing towns the same result is evident. In Manchester, Preston, Bradford, Nottingham, Radford, Leicester, and Stoke, the proportion of deaths under 5 years of age ranges from 45 to 50 per cent. of the whole number. In Leeds, Basford, Mansfield, Liverpool, and Hull, it rises above 40 per cent., which was the general average of 1864; that of 1853 being 37 per cent. On the other hand, Bath, Canterbury, King's Lynn, Bakewell, Bingham, Southwell, Colchester, Worksop, and Stone, have an average not exceeding 35 per cent. of deaths under 5 years of age, while Cheltenham, Winchester, and Stafford, on an average of the two years taken, 1853 and 1854, have less than 30 per cent. of juvenile mortality. No doubt the comparative health of town and country helps to increase this disparity. The large towns are not so healthy as the agricultural districts. Yet this is not the only cause; else Liverpool would not have a lower rate than Manchester, or Leeds than Bradford: nor would Cheltenham, Winchester, and Stafford, where the females have no employment to take them from their homes, have a lower rate than the agricultural districts, which they sometimes have. If further argument were needed to prove the case, it would be found in the fact that the juvenile mortality of the towns where cotton is manufactured diminished in the years of distress, when there was a scantier supply of food for the children, but the mothers were at home to take care of them. Thus, in 1853, Manchester (including Salford) had 48·5 of juvenile deaths; but in 1864, when the general average was 3 per cent. higher, that of Manchester fell to 43 or 5½ per cent., and in Preston it fell from 49·5 per cent. in 1853 to 46·5 per cent. in 1864.

In the *second* place, a no less important evil attends the withdrawal of unmarried women from their homes. In some cases they live at home, but work at the factories; in others, they leave their homes in order to lodge near their labour. The temptations to which they are thus exposed are very great. I approach this matter with some hesitation, but the facts are so important that I feel myself justified in bringing them forward. Illegitimacy is the not unexpected result of collecting females in mixed labour away from their homes. The proportion of illegitimate births in the whole country

was in 1853 6·5 per cent., and in 1864 it was 6·4 per cent.* My own town of Mansfield has the unenviable notoriety of heading the list with 11·5 per cent. of illegitimate births in 1853, and 10 per cent. in 1864. Carlisle, Nottingham, Bingham, Preston, Norwich, and Yarmouth, follow in succession, all reaching an average of 9 per cent. on the two years; while Leicester, Derby, Stafford, Radford, Southwell, Stoke, and Newark, rise to about 8 per cent. On the other hand, Plymouth, Hull, Bristol, Bath, Dudley, and Sheffield, fall noticeably below the general average by $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 per cent.; and Liverpool and Birmingham hold the distinction of having the smallest proportion of 5 per cent. of illegitimate births.†

Hence appears the perhaps startling facts that illegitimacy is below the average in seaport towns, although the female population is in excess. It is to be feared that this advantage is counterbalanced by other sins which are generally supposed to prevail in such towns. The remarkable fact that such towns as Dudley and Sheffield have a good character in this respect is perhaps traceable to the fact I shall presently notice, that the deficiency of females in those towns and the good wages of the men tend to promote early marriages. This is not, however, the case in Birmingham, which makes its low percentage of illegitimacy all the more creditable, and may be traceable to the fact that its population is made up of an average proportion of men and women. Illegitimacy is therefore prevalent in manufacturing and agricultural towns. In the one case women are collected together with men in large numbers by day; in the other, the scanty accommodation of the cottages crowds them into the same rooms at night; and where the gang system is employed in agriculture, the girls degenerate, it is said, most rapidly and completely in character. Connected with this vice are consequent crimes, on which I will only briefly touch. Dr. Lancaster has called especial attention to the awful prevalence of infanticide. Mr. Michael Browne, coroner for Nottingham for twenty-seven years, declares that “to the best of his

* The proportion per cent. of illegitimate to legitimate births is about in—

Sweden	6·5	Austria	11·3
Norway	6·6	London	4·0
Belgium	6·7	Liverpool	4·5
France	7·1	Birmingham, under	5·0
Prussia	7·1	Manchester	6·0
Denmark	9·3	Scotland (1858)	8·8
Hanover	9·8		

See Mr. James Valentine's Paper on Illegitimacy in Scotland. “British Association Report, 1859,” p. 224.

† Local observation will probably confirm the statement in the Registrar-General's Report for 1864 (p. 28, note †), that “some of the births—especially of “illegitimate children in London and large towns—escape registration.” This remark may perhaps be also true for thinly-populated country districts, and gives added strength to the argument.

“recollection by far the greater proportion of those infants on whom he had held inquests had been illegitimate.” “Another index and result,” he adds, “of the amount of immorality prevailing amongst the young females here is the large number of persons whose profession it is to procure abortion. Cases of deaths resulting from this cause have come before me ;”^{*} and in my own town of Mansfield (where illegitimacy is so high), this is also the case. A man has been recently twice tried (though not convicted), for this offence.

I doubt not the evidence of Mr. Browne would be equally applicable to other towns where the rate of illegitimacy is high ; and that these more terrible crimes follow from that vice.

There is, *thirdly*, the question of early marriages. It has been said that these result from the aggregated employment of women, and extreme cases have been mentioned of its occurrence in Nottingham. But the statistics on this point seem to confirm the natural expectation that where the supply of women is small, the demand is great, and they marry young ; and that the contrary is the case where the women exceed the men in numbers. About one-fifth of the women married in England are under age ; in 1853 it was 18 per cent. ; in 1864, 20 per cent. The marriages of female minors greatly exceed the average in mining and other towns, such as Dudley, Wolverhampton, Wakefield, Sheffield, and Basford, where there is a large proportion of men, and wages are high. It is slightly above the average in Birmingham, Stoke, Stafford, Gainsborough, Burton, Canterbury, and Mansfield. And it is also remarkable that in some of the manufacturing towns, where the women are in excess, the marriages of minors are also above the average. This applies to Leeds especially, but also to Bradford, to Radford, and in a less marked degree to Manchester and Preston, but not to Nottingham. Now, where mothers are led to work away from their homes, early marriages would seem to be an evil ; but where that is not the case, it is worthy of consideration whether or not it be desirable for a working-class woman to delay marriage till she is of age.

I have not been able to investigate the criminal returns with the same detail as the previous points ; but I have examined the statistical returns of the Manchester police for the years 1853, 1861, 1862, 1864, and 1865, and find that of the factory hands the female spinners were seldom guilty of any crime, but that considerable numbers of female weavers, piecers, &c., were apprehended on charges of assault, larceny, and drunkenness. The numbers varied from 259 in 1861 to 532 in 1865, being highest in the last and preceding year. Scarcely half of these women were in work at the time of apprehension, and they bore to the total female apprehensions an average proportion of about one-sixth.

^{*} “Children’s Employment Commission, 1862.” First Report, p. 242.

The question of *health* is also one of importance. It is evident that unless proper means are taken for making factories, &c., healthy and well-ventilated, injury will result to the health of women, and especially of the younger ones. This can be done by employers, and enforced by the legislature.

Similar evils are found to exist in France, where women are collected to labour in mills; and are attested in very glowing language in the interesting work of M. Jules Simon on the "Workwoman."

If it be asked whether these evils are inherent in the system, it seems only necessary to point to the case of the Lowell Mills, in America, to prove that they are not. In our own country, Bradford may be quoted as an instance where collective female labour and a large proportion of women in the town have scarcely raised illegitimacy above the average, although the proportion of juvenile deaths is high.

It would seem that this movement of the population has been going on so rapidly that the resulting evils have in part escaped observation; that legislation, religion, and philanthropy have been unable to keep pace with this difficulty.

We cannot control a movement of the population such as this. Where the employment of women, by cheapening the cost of production, adds to the profit of the manufacturer, and benefits the consumer, at the same time that it adds to the income of the family or makes the women independent, nothing will prevent that employment. What measures, then, can be taken to guide it, so as to make it result in good rather than in evil?

M. Simon, in his work, insists strongly upon what is the true point, that the life of the *family* must be maintained. The mother must retain her place in the household, if the household is to be comfortable, the children properly nursed, the food and clothing sufficient and nourishing, the husband attached to his family, his garden and his home. The working-class need to be convinced that the welfare of the family will be more promoted by a mother at home than by her adding a few shillings a-week to the family income at the cost of diseased and dying children, of unfit food, of discomfort to all, and of expensive habits in an absent husband.

The want of education and domestic training is another great cause of evil. An ill-educated girl falls readily into temptation; an ill-educated wife can neither make nor mend clothes, nor cook, nor nurse her children properly.

The promotion of family life, and the due education of the young, especially of girls are, then, two great remedies which each one in his own sphere may labour to apply. All the concurrent institutions of the church and the school; the sick clubs, the savings banks, the

building societies of the poor, are, moreover, means by which their condition may be raised in this as in other respects.

Can the legislature interfere in this matter? The principle is now fully recognised that Parliament may wisely and beneficially interfere in regulating the labour of children. To the gradual extension of this regulation to every employment we must look for further benefits. The half-time system, by which children under 13 years are forbidden to work more than a certain number of hours, and are required to attend school every day, or every other day, has been acknowledged as successful, and is being gradually extended. It has been privately applied with success even in the regulation of farm labour.

Great advantage arises moreover from regularity in the hour of leaving work, which results from the operation of the Factory Act. Irregularity in this respect has been greatly felt as a harm in this town (Nottingham). Parents did not know at what time their daughters had left work, and were, therefore, unable to control their leisure hours. Regularity in this respect not only tends to the comfort of the family arrangements, but to the morality of its youthful members.

The influence of the employers of labour is, moreover, most important in this matter. There are numberless ways in which they may remove temptations from the way of their servants, in which they may provide wholesome means for their welfare. The improvement in the conduct of the factory girls at Bradford has been partly attributed to a better superintendence by the respectable portion of the masters; and if they would (as indeed some find their advantage in doing) discourage the employment of married women, would take a righteous interest in the young women who serve them, and provide duly for the education of the children they employ, much would be done to reduce the evils I have noticed.

APPENDIX.

Table of Male and Female Population ; Births, Marriages,

Class of Towns.	Towns.	Population, 1861.		Marriages.				Births, 1853.	
		Males.	Females.	1853.		1864.		Totals.	Illegitimate.
				Totals.	Female Minors.	Totals.	Female Minors.		
	Average of England ... }	100	105·25	164,520	·177	180,387	·20	612,391	·065
<i>Manufacturing:</i>									
Cotton	Manchester and Salford }	165,245	184,078	5,536	·23	5,018	·238	12,996	·057
"	Preston	52,068	58,455	1,015	·25	925	·22	3,876	·10
"	Carlisle	21,266	23,554	240	·13	373	·16	1,407	·088
Wool	Bradford	93,299	103,176	2,024	·26	2,159	·217	7,661	·065
"	Leeds	56,424	61,142	2,028	·27	1,958	·26	4,000	·06
Silk and shoes ...	Norwich	33,727	40,713	764	·18	749	·225	2,133	·09
" railway..	Derby	24,125	26,924	669	·17	639	·20	1,688	·075
Shoes	Stafford	12,399	12,075	193	·24	204	·22	711	·08
Lace	Nottingham.....	34,144	41,621	809	·14	913	·165	2,202	·09
"	Radford	14,280	16,199	340	·25	205	·245	1,067	·07
Agricultural, hosiery, lace, mining	Basford	36,988	36,297	618	·29	532	·30	2,414	·085
Hosiery	Leicester	31,834	36,356	712	·22	973	·25	2,283	·08
Gloves	Worcester	14,734	16,235	294	·16	301	·16	822	·07
Pottery	Stone	10,768	11,158	153	·17	178	·20	582	·08
"	Stoke	35,616	35,692	782	·18	816	·26	2,492	·09
Mixed: mining, agricultural, manufacturing }	Mansfield.....	15,222	15,371	242	·24	247	·26	985	·115
"	Belper	26,235	25,476	404	·16	458	·26	1,565	·07
"	Worksop	10,476	10,228	131	·15	140	·30	596	·05
Mining	Dudley	65,626	64,641	1,629	·38	1,611	·315	5,314	·05
"	Wolverhampton	64,393	62,509	1,311	·27	1,215	·29	4,667	·057
"	Newcastle	55,027	55,941	1,429	·14	1,835	·15	3,169	·068
"	Wakefield	27,704	27,345	484	·25	490	·29	1,728	·06
Steel	Sheffield	64,784	64,167	2,056	·32	2,185	·346	4,767	·054
"	Birmingham ...	103,893	108,728	2,074	·23	2,339	·23	7,546	·046
Brewing	Burton	21,079	19,986	288	·21	362	·23	1,118	·077
Agricultural.....	Bakewell	15,637	15,741	168	·09	182	·22	836	·076
"	Bingham	7,666	8,004	95	·19	97	·08	533	·09
"	Newark	14,825	15,361	262	·15	205	·215	943	·08
"	Gainsborough ...	12,950	13,023	218	·19	214	·23	750	·06
"	Southwell.....	12,134	12,291	131	·12	141	·20	754	·076
Seaports	Plymouth.....	29,010	33,589	640	·13	786	·136	1,902	·05
"	Yarmouth	13,460	16,878	259	·10	331	·21	850	·10
"	Kings Lynn.....	7,415	9,286	143	·12	140	·21	536	·06
"	Hull	27,568	29,320	634	·14	790	·24	1,641	·05
Commercial and manu- facturing do. }	Bristol	30,569	35,458	1,369	·17	1,339	·175	2,129	·05
"	Liverpool.....	132,842	136,900	4,255	·19	4,420	·22	8,478	·05
Watering places	Brighton	33,169	44,524	663	·18	850	·16	2,279	·07
"	Cheltenham.....	21,280	28,512	414	·09	430	·14	1,094	·07
"	Bath	28,308	40,028	650	·13	699	·12	1,766	·06
Barracks	Canterbury	8,451	8,192	135	·22	142	·22	369	·08
"	Winchester	13,686	12,921	214	·16	188	·21	700	·07
"	Colchester	12,046	11,769	169	·22	274	·21	606	·08

Note.—These statistics are taken from the Registrar-General's Returns for 1853 and 1864, and

APPENDIX.

Deaths in the under-named English Towns.

Births, 1864.		Deaths.						Remarks.]
		1853.			1864.			
Totals.	Illegiti- mate.	Totals.	Under 1 Year.	Under 5 Years.	Totals.	Under 1 Year.	Under 5 Years.	
0,275	·064	421,097	·23	·368	495,931	·228	·40	
3,335	·064	10,312	·28	·485	10,601	·228	·43	} Marked excess of females
2,284	·087	2,909	·29	·495	3,011	·26	·465	
4,483	·119	991	·24	·37	1,169	·208	·35	
3,440	·073	5,182	·32	·52	6,060	·259	·485	
2,967	·068	2,822	·28	·44	3,756	·268	·457	} Average proportion of male and female Excess of males
2,570	·09	1,648	·25	·35	1,882	·215	·367	
2,110	·077	1,118	·24	·38	1,285	·23	·386	
2,794	·08	482	·195	·315	595	·18	·275	
2,602	·10	1,905	·27	·486	2,049	·248	·43	} Marked excess of females
2,065	·09	734	·30	·51	784	·25	·44	
2,857	·089	1,598	·30	·456	1,642	·27	·43	Slight excess of males
2,115	·074	1,680	·29	·47	2,108	·305	·467	Marked excess of females
2,061	·076	703	·17	·33	873	·23	·38	Average
2,727	·066	420	·21	·31	457	·23	·37	} Slight excess of males
2,290	·07	1,790	·295	·495	1,985	·30	·474	
2,134	·099	673	·28	·42	722	·278	·41	
2,928	·07	1,149	·19	·40	1,177	·21	·37	
2,725	·07	422	·21	·34	400	·25	·36	} Marked
2,412	·056	3,191	·30	·58	4,176	·31	·60	
2,487	·06	3,228	·30	·545	3,607	·28	·52	„
2,668	·067	4,051	·18	·35	3,151	·264	·437	Slight
2,308	·07	1,343	·22	·375	1,656	·255	·39	„
2,043	·059	3,434	·28	·518	4,246	·28	·49	Excess of adult males
2,875	·053	4,949	·26	·47	6,589	·25	·495	Average
2,734	·06	703	·21	·34	1,004	·237	·42	Marked excess of males
2,959	·06	688	·20	·34	647	·175	·285	} Slight preponderance of males
2,450	·10	300	·225	·306	308	·20	·30	
2,997	·078	710	·17	·37	712	·215	·36	} Excess of males up to 20 years „ male juvenile death
2,834	·086	475	·25	·36	516	·25	·35	
2,703	·085	505	·225	·355	508	·187	·295	} Deficiency of males, probably owing to their absence as seafarers
2,173	·055	1,244	·22	·385	1,450	·24	·406	
2,102	·086	624	·25	·34	778	·23	·39	
2,487	·115	358	·19	·315	365	·175	·337	
2,125	·06	1,201	·255	·40	1,649	·238	·45	
2,304	·055	1,948	·20	·36	1,853	·198	·37	
2,056	·044	8,293	·245	·466	10,811	·23	·42	} Excess of males, except from 15 to 45, i.e., the age of sailors
2,542	·07	1,414	·225	·38	1,850	·22	·36	
2,381	·06	871	·166	·28	964	·20	·295	} Excess of females, domestic ser- vants, lodging-house keepers, laundresses, and gentlewomen
2,806	·05	1,507	·17	·26	1,811	·17	·36	
2,533	·067	291	·175	·27	429	·195	·35	} Marked excess of males, viz., soldiers and officers
2,762	·067	492	·16	·245	516	·14	·27	
2,780	·057	413	·19	·27	518	·21	·34	

census of 1861. The figures are taken from the superintendent registrars' district returns.

On the PROGRESS of ELEMENTARY EDUCATION. By WILLIAM LUCAS SARGANT, Author of "Social Innovators and their Schemes," "Science of Social Opulence," &c.

[Read before the Statistical Society, 19th March, 1867.]

CONTENTS:

	PAGE		PAGE
I.—Introduction.....	82	APPENDIX.	
II.—Attendance at School.....	83	O.—Number of Marks made in Signing Marriage Registers, from 1754 to 1837.....	127
III.—Results are What we Want	85	P.—“Common Schools” in Eighteen of the United States: Sums Furnished by State Taxation and by Interest on Share of Land Sales	128
IV.—How to Arrive at Results	86	Q.—Number of Marks made in Signing Marriage Registers, in the Years ending Midsummer 1840, Christmas 1851, and Christmas 1863; in England and Wales by Divisions, and Scotland.....	129
V.—Comparison with other Statistics	87	R.—Number of Marks made in Signing Marriage Registers, in the Years ending Midsummer 1840, Christmas 1851, and Christmas 1863; in England by Counties	130
VI.—Subsidiary Statistics	88	S.—Number of Marks made in Signing Marriage Registers, in the Years ending Christmas 1846 and Christmas 1864; in some of the Principal Cities and Towns of England	134
VII.—Present Educational State of England, Scotland, and Ireland.....	88	T.—Number of Marks made in Signing Marriage Registers in the Years ending Christmas 1846 and Christmas 1864; in some of the London Registration Districts	136
VIII.—Progress	89	U.—State of Education of Seamen, Marines, and Boys in Her Majesty's Navy	137
IX.—Comparison with Foreign Countries	93		
X.—Comparison of Various Parts of England	106		
XI.—The Eleven Poor Law Divisions...	106		
XII.—The Counties	107		
XIII.—The Great Towns.....	108		
XIV.—Some London Districts	108		
XV.—Comparison of Town and Country	109		
XVI.—Comparison of the Sexes	111		
XVII.—What has been Done	112		
XVIII.—Prospects for the Future	120		
Note by Mr. J. T. Hammick, of the General Register Office, Somerset House	125		

IN the following article I arrive at some conclusions of importance, if, as I believe, they are well founded.

(a) We possess in the marriage registers the means of determining the progress of instruction: not indeed the means of determining exactly how many young persons can write, but only what is the comparative number at one time and another, and in one place and another. P. 86.

(b) The signatures to registers were first taken in 1753, after the passing of Lord Hardwicke's Marriage Act: they exist from this date in most parishes: I have obtained access to only a few; but I give reasons for believing that those few fairly represent those

of the whole country from 1753 to 1840. Since 1840, the Registrar-General has supplied us with abstracts. Pp. 89, 127, 128.

(c) The progress of instruction has been considerable. In 1754, about half of the men and women, taken together, signed with a mark: at present about a quarter do this. Pp. 91, 127, 128, 129.

(d) Between 1754 and 1800, the marks fell from 51 to 47: but the improvement was altogether in the rural districts; the towns deteriorating considerably. Pp. 91, 127, 128.

(e) Between 1800 and 1835, the improvement was greater than in the previous longer period; the marks falling from 47 to 41: the improvement occurred in town as well as country. Pp. 91, 127, 128.

(f) Throughout the whole period from 1754 to 1835, the improvement in the rural districts was greatest among the women: for in 1754 more than two-thirds of the women made a mark; whereas in 1835 about half did so. In the towns the men improved the most. Pp. 91, 127, 128.

Note.—All the above propositions rest on a few returns: a larger collection might modify my results: but the differences I have mentioned are so marked, and so far uniform in different parishes, that I think we may trust the direction, though not the degree, of the variations.

The next propositions rest on the returns for all England and Wales supplied by the Registrar-General.

(g) The *rate* of improvement is much higher now than formerly: from 1754 to 1835 it averaged 1 signature in seven years; from 1840-51, 1 in three years; from 1851-63, 1 in one year and a quarter. Pp. 90, 91, 92.

(h) This highest rate of progress still, I hope, prevails: so that the children now leaving school, may be expected when they marry to give 80 signatures to 20 marks. Pp. 88, 92, 93.

(i) Further progress also, appears within our reach; first by the increase of the number of children under Government inspection, which has actually grown in eleven years from half a million to a million and a quarter; secondly, by the expected extension of the half school-time system to the hardware towns, and to the country generally. P. 115.

(j) Yet there is still left a considerable class at the very bottom of the scale, which our present means do not reach. I suggest that other measures are necessary for these children: that the guardians of the poor, or town councils, should receive such powers to pay the school-pence as guardians already possess with regard to out-door paupers, and that then a partial compulsion should be exercised by an extension of the provisions of the Industrial Schools Act. P. 124.

(k) Scotland stands decidedly above England. Ireland has not as yet published any marriage returns: a return of recruits to the army places it rather below both Scotland and England. P. 89.

(l) Comparing English towns and rural districts, there is little difference. Even the ill-paid labourers of the South West, sign their names to at least as great an extent as the workpeople of better paid districts. Pp. 109–111.

(m) In the agricultural counties, the girls are quite as well taught as the boys, and in many counties even better. In the northern manufacturing counties, the boys are far in advance. P. 111.

(n) France is the only foreign country as to which I have found any record of marriage signatures: judged by this standard, we have a decided superiority; though France has recovered rapidly from the uninstructed condition which resulted from the Revolution of 1789, and the long continued European wars. Prussian education, however good it is, has probably been overestimated. In the United States, the sums applied to the public support of the “Common Schools,” are wonderfully large (p. 128): in the same proportion, we ought to spend seven millions sterling a-year, or ten times our present amount. P. 93–105.

I.—*Introduction.*

Elementary education was a subject which engaged much of the attention of the Statistical Society, during a considerable period after its foundation in 1834. Before the establishment of the *Journal* in 1838–39, a Committee of the Society had devoted itself to educational inquiries:* a large part of the first volume of the *Journal* consists of reports of this Committee, as well as of reports of another and independent body, called the “Central Society of Education.”† Subsequent volumes contained further reports; and it was found in 1843, that the London parishes actually visited by the Statistical Society’s agents, contained a population of 800,000 persons,‡ and therefore constituted a very large part of the whole metropolis. The reports contained a multitude of important particulars, besides the number of pupils: as, the rank of the schools, whether dame, common, middling, superior, infant, charity, or evening; the subjects taught, from reading up to classics; the books used, from primers and spelling-books upwards; the methods of instruction and examination.§

In the provinces, similar efforts were made. A Statistical Society had been established at Manchester even before the London one, or any other. Paid agents had been employed to visit the whole of the labouring population of Manchester and five other towns, containing together 300,000 inhabitants.|| Two of the reports will be found in the second volume of our *Journal*: one on the educational

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. i, p. 5.

† *Ibid.*, vol. i, p. 46.

‡ *Ibid.*, vol. vi, p. 211.

§ *Ibid.*, vol. i, pp. 207 and 211.

|| *Ibid.*, vol. i, p. 48.

state of the township of Pendleton,* the other on that of the county of Rutland.† I may add that the same society has recently prosecuted similar inquiries; and has given the world a striking picture of the state of education in Manchester in 1835 and in 1861.‡

Birmingham followed this example. An elaborate report from its "Statistical Society for the improvement of Education," appears in our third volume.§ Similar information was supplied by other places: as, for example, Bristol,|| and Penzance.¶

Many other early volumes of our *Journal* contained papers of the same kind: the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth in particular, had extensive articles by the editor, Mr. Fletcher; articles so elaborately worked out as to furnish a mine to the student, though the formal distinctions adopted make them rather perplexing to the ordinary reader.

All these investigations took place before 1850: since that time other topics have prevailed in the "Transactions" of this Society: in the volumes xvi to xxv, which are included in the second part of the elaborate Index (not the least valuable part of our publications), only eight educational papers appear; and I find only two more papers, both of them on university subjects, in the four last volumes. I do not attribute this reduction, to any failure of interest in the progress of education: I am convinced that it is the result of altered circumstances: the Government, through the Educational Committee of the Privy Council, distribute the considerable funds voted by Parliament; and the late Royal Commission by means of able and paid assistants, have carried out inquiries far more costly and elaborate than were possible for private persons: it would therefore have been useless for the Statistical Society to continue its earlier efforts.

II.—*Attendance at School.*

I will here mention one fact which is new to me. The Committee of this Society say in 1843;—

"It is impossible** to help being struck with the small proportion of private schools for the poor which exist in the *west end* of London, and the gradual increase of them as we proceed *eastward*; Westminster having only 1 scholar for every 48·6 inhabitants, and Wapping 1 for every 18·2. This difference is not compensated by a greater number of charity scholars, Westminster showing an equally low ratio in this respect also, viz., 1 charity scholar

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. ii, p. 65.

† *Ibid.*, vol. ii, p. 303.

‡ "Social Science Transactions, 1865," p. 333.

§ *Statistical Journal*, vol. iii, p. 25.

|| *Ibid.*, vol. iv, 250.

¶ *Ibid.*, vol. ii, p. 222.

** *Ibid.*, vol. vi, p. 212.

“in every 28 inhabitants, whilst Wapping, Shadwell, &c., have 1
 “in every 15. The different proportions of rich and poor and the
 “greater number of middle schools in the former district, may
 “account for the discrepancy in some degree, but not, your Com-
 “mittee think, entirely.” It has been suggested that the smaller
 number of children at the west end accounts for the apparent
 anomaly. In a parish where the number of servants exceeds that
 of families, few lower-class schools are wanted: and in some degree
 this is true of all the district.

It follows from the return given above, that in the eastern districts
 mentioned, the number of children in private schools was $5\frac{1}{2}$ per
 cent. of the population, and the number in public schools 7 per
 cent.; making a total of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the population at school,
 or 1 in 8. This is a proportion far above the 1 in 10 or 11,
 which was that of the country at large at that period; and this fact
 harmonises with what we shall afterwards find, as to the present
 superiority of the London labouring population in the power of
 writing.

The progress in the numbers attending school throughout the
 country, will be found in an article of 1862, by Mr. Horace Mann;*
 from which it appears that the children at school were to the whole
 population; as—

1818.	1832.	1851.	1858.
One in 17·25	11·27	8·36	7·65

More particulars will be found in an account from the “Times,”
 copied into our *Journal*.† If we were to place implicit reliance
 on the parents’ returns in the last census, we should believe that in
 1861, there were 3,150,000 scholars, or one to 6·37 of the whole
 population.‡ The Manchester Statistical Society, in 1839, estimated
 the day-school attendance in the towns of York, Liverpool, and
 Manchester, and the county of Rutland: they found that in this
 respect York stood at the head, while Rutlandshire, Liverpool, and
 Manchester, followed in order of merit.§

It would be painful to have to believe, on the authority of the
 same society, that the attendance at school in Manchester, was less
 in 1861 than it was in 1839. Yet we are told || that comparing
 1834-35 with 1861, “though the actual number of day-scholars had
 “greatly increased, the increase had not kept pace with the increase of
 “population, and this is equivalent to an actual decline in numbers.
 “Thirty years ago, there was 1 day-scholar for each 10·33 of popu-
 “lation; while in 1861 there was only 1 for each 11 of population.”

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. xxv, p. 50.

† *Ibid*, vol. xxiv, p. 208.

‡ *Census*, ii, xxxvii, “Scholars.”

§ *Statistical Journal*, vol. ii, p. 304.

|| “*Social Science Transactions*,” 1865, p. 333.

I am entirely unable however, to reconcile this statement with the figures given in the census of 1861, which are these:—*

Population of Manchester	357,979	
„ Salford	102,449	
	<hr/>	
	460,428	
<i>Scholars in Manchester and Salford—†</i>		
Boys	32,537	
Girls	32,790	
	<hr/>	
	65,327	
= 14½ per cent., or 1 in 7 instead of 1 in 11.		

Mistakes of this kind are so common that it is quite unnecessary to account for them.

We have heard much lately, of the great number of children who ought to be at school and are not there. Many such complaints rest on what seems to me a gross error: it is said that all children from 3 to 13 are of school age; therefore all children from 3 to 13 ought to be at school. Is it really believed that a man earning 15s. a-week, and having six children from 4 to 12 years old, is bound to have all of them always at school? and that all such children therefore, are to be at school ten years?

If this were so, then about 23 per cent. of the whole population ought to be at school: but the royal commission pronounced that 15 per cent. was a sufficient proportion.

III.—*Results are what we Want.*

It seems to me that after all, the great question is, not how many children are at school, but how many children are educated, and retain their instruction. It is probably true, that in some cases children now leave school earlier than they did formerly, because they sooner acquire the instruction for the sake of which they are sent to school. During the last ten years, I have had opportunities of knowing the ages of day-school pupils in Birmingham; I find that during that period the number from 14 to 16 years old has much diminished. Nor do I regret this. Most of such children were at school at this comparatively late age, because they had been neglected while they were younger: the diminution of numbers shows a mitigation of such neglect. Under 14, some who formerly would have remained, now leave because they have attained the standard of instruction which satisfies their parents. If by means of evening schools, Sunday schools, and free libraries, these children's attainments can be kept up, I see nothing to regret in this early removal. I know that many manufacturers and merchants decline to receive boys even as clerks after 15; and I believe that to make expert and

* "Census," vol. iii, p. 102. † Ibid., vol. ii, p. 648.

steady mechanics boys should begin earlier than that: in many cases too, particularly those of widows with families, the early gains of the children are necessary.

While therefore, I would not disregard the question, how many are at school, I am far more desirous of knowing how many are well instructed, and how many retain the education they acquire.

IV.—*How to arrive at Results.*

I am not acquainted with any means of ascertaining this, except as to the most elementary instruction: but it is something to learn what proportion of the population can read and write. We can do this to a considerable extent; and what is more important, we can learn with tolerable accuracy what were the comparative numbers formerly and now: what progress has been made and is still making: what is the comparative condition of different parts of the kingdom; and how far one great nation excels or falls short of us.

In this paper then, I inquire how many adults can now write: how many could write in former years: how many can write in France: how many can write in Scotland and Ireland, in Middlesex and Lancashire, in London and Liverpool, in St. George's Hanover Square and Bethnal Green. Some, I know, can read with pleasure, who cannot write: it is said that a few can sign their names, but are unable to read print.* But for the purpose of comparison we may disregard these exceptions, because where considerable numbers are taken, there will be about as many exceptions in one place as in another.

How then, can we learn the numbers of persons in a particular district and of a given age, who are able to write their names? After much inquiry I am convinced that the marriage registers supply the means. The register of births has been used in this way in the town of Lancaster:† but even if we possessed published reports of the signatures to these registers throughout the kingdom, they would be rather inferior to those of the marriages; and we do not possess the one, we do possess the other in the volumes of the Registrar-General.

I do not pretend that the marriage registers are faultless. I know that irregularities occur in framing them. I hear that in some few crowded churches, the clerk, to save time, writes the names of witnesses, and it may be even of the newly married persons, while these hold the feather end of the pen. In most registers however, the variety of writing shows that this bad practice does not prevail.

Then again, it is certain that some persons sign with a mark, though they can write their names in cooler moments: different

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. ii, p. 228, note.

† See the excellent Report of the "Lancaster Union," April, 1862.

clergymen have estimated such persons as from 10 to 25 per cent. of the whole. The number of men who use a mark is now about 23 per cent.: these clergymen's estimates would reduce them to 17 or 20 per cent. But whatever amount of misrepresentation there may be, it must be about the same for one place as for another, where large numbers are taken. It is probably more considerable in crowded churches than in others where the paucity of weddings allows the clergyman to press for the signatures.

I have taken great pains to ascertain the truth in this matter. I have consulted many clergymen familiar with different parts of the kingdom. I have in most cases met with the one objection, that some persons who can sign, refuse to sign: but when I have asked whether the same amount of irregularity will not be found in one town and another, taking considerable numbers into account, I have received an affirmative answer. For the purpose of comparison, the registers may, I believe, be trusted.

Another defect should be remembered. The registers exhibit the degree of elementary instruction among the persons who come to be married: but perhaps the proportion of unmarried persons may be greater in one place than another; and the unmarried may be better or worse instructed than the married. According to the census, Liverpool has an unusually large number of unmarried persons.

While I was making these inquiries, it was suggested to me that all the non-parochial registers formerly kept, had been handed over to the Registrar-General. By the kindness of Dr. Farr and Mr. Hammick, an examination of these registers has been made, and the result, interesting in itself, though unsatisfactory for my purpose, will be found in a note at the end of this paper.

V.—*Comparison with other Statistics.*

If we compare these statistics, with others generally used without scruple, we may perhaps be well satisfied. Few returns are made more use of than those of the Registrar-General: yet Dr. Farr has often lamented to us that through the want of compulsory powers, many births are unregistered: it is certain also that this neglect varies much in different places, and at different periods. We do not therefore refuse to use the register: we only correct it as far as we can. Even in the deaths, as to which we might expect accurate returns, there are the still-born, registered in Prussia, not registered here; besides those, dropped from our register as still-born, though they have lived for hours or days.

The marriages at present may all be actually registered: it is hard to believe that they were so formerly. We may fairly assume that the marriage-rate has been about as high of late years, as it was in 1840: but the number of marriages registered in 1851 and in

1863 was, when compared with the population, far higher than the number registered in 1840. Here again, we do not decline to use the registers: we satisfy ourselves with correcting them to the best of our ability. I might show in the same way, that the Custom House returns of exports are not to be trusted implicitly; yet I do not therefore, refuse to believe that the exports have greatly increased since the adoption of a free trade policy.

VI.—*Subsidiary Statistics.*

Besides the marriage registers, there are occasional returns of recruiting officers, as to the education of the men they enlist. There is one, for example, in 1861;* from which it seems that in England and in Scotland, $67\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the recruits could write. This equality of England with Scotland, is inconsistent with the evidence from the marriage registers, which proves a decided superiority on the part of Scotland. I believe that the marriage registers are the more to be trusted, because they are signed equally by all classes in both countries; whereas it is possible that the Scottish recruits are on the average drawn from a lower class than the English recruits. Only 66 per cent. of the Irish recruits appear from this paper to be able to write: and this is the only evidence I have to offer as to Ireland, in the absence at present of returns of marriages.

Judicial statistics again, may supply some suggestions; but the incompleteness of the returns, and the inexplicable fluctuations in the amount of crime, render them far less trustworthy than those of marriages. Considered absolutely, all we hear popularly reported about the immediate connection of crime and ignorance, is contradicted by the laboriously formed opinion of Mr. Fletcher, who said† that twenty years ago, the state of instruction among criminals “afforded but feeble testimony in favour of much of the instruction then given.”

VII.—*Present Educational State of England, Scotland, and Ireland.*

1. *England and Wales.*—On the whole I am convinced that in the inquiry as to elementary education, we shall be safe in relying on the marriage registers for the purpose of comparison. Judging by these, we shall conclude that there is still much to be desired; since we shall hardly regard it as satisfactory that any considerable portion of men or women should be unable to write their names.

Now, throughout England and Wales in 1864, 23 per cent. of men newly married signed with a mark; and making allowance for

* “Annals of British Legislation,” No. 84, March, 1864, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 161, \\ 441. \end{array} \right.$

† *Statistical Journal*, vol. xi, p. 345.

those who could write but did not, we may say that 80 could write for 20 who could not. Among the women the proportions are less favourable:—about 70 to 30. I shall show afterwards however, that real progress is being made in reducing the number of marks in proportion to signatures.

Much too, as we may regret that any large number of our countrymen should be unable to write, we should not act wisely in overstating the deficiency. Professor Fawcett seems to me guilty of this error. He pronounces the agricultural labourers (who are in truth, as well instructed as the town population) entirely illiterate: he says that “their ignorance is as complete as it is distressing:” in a recent speech at Manchester he complained of “the crass and hopeless ignorance of our agricultural labourers:”† he says‡ that “improved schools, enormous educational grants, and “a general zeal for instructing the poor, have failed to educate the “agricultural labourers.” Postponing for the present any protest against the allegation of enormity in the Government grants, as well as the proof that the agricultural labourers are as well instructed as the townspeople, I must express my dissent from the dogmatical assertion of hopeless ignorance as to a people of whom 80 men in the hundred and 70 women in the hundred can write their names.

2. *Ireland*.—As to Ireland we do not at present know how many persons sign the marriage registers. The only document I have to offer is the one to which I have already referred; from which it appears that among the recruits for 1861, all young men, of course, the signatures were fewer than those in England.

3. *Scotland*.—The marriage registers of Scotland have been published since 1855: we find from them, as we should have expected, that there is a larger proportion of signatures than there is in England. The excess is about 10 of each sex: the actual and possible signatures being about 80 and 70 in England; 90 and 80 in Scotland. The counties vary much: in Kinross and Selkirk, in 1855, every man signed, and in Selkirk every woman; while in Ross and Cromarty, a third of the men, and half of the women, made only marks.

VIII.—*Progress.*

The question, what progress we have made and are still making, is almost as interesting as the question what is our present state. The principal tables in my appendix apply to the last quarter of a century: but besides this I have some little evidence to offer as to a much longer period. The marriage registers have been kept in their present form, since the passing of Lord Hardwicke's Act in 1753:

* “Manual of Political Economy,” second edition, p. 212.

† “Economist,” 13th October, 1866, p. 1193.

‡ “Manual,” p. 212.

there exist therefore, throughout England and Wales, materials for estimating the number of young people in the middle of the last century, who were able to sign their names.

This part of my investigation was suggested to me by a most valuable paper read before this Society in 1839 by Mr. Edmonds.* Mr. Edmonds supplied an elaborate statistical account of the port and borough of Penzance, and of the agricultural parish of Madron. Among other items of information, he gives the number of signatures to marriage registers at three periods, beginning respectively with 1754, 1800, and 1832. I have adopted these three periods as nearly as possible. Mr. Edmonds found that judged by this standard, the men had made no progress between 1754 and 1800, and some between 1800 and 1832: but that the women had made considerable progress during the whole time.

If it were thought necessary to exhaust this topic, we should have to examine the registers of thousands of parishes, and to reckon up the signatures to millions of records: such an expenditure of time and labour would, I think, be a waste. On the other hand, I have not succeeded in getting returns sufficiently numerous to furnish a conclusion altogether trustworthy: by a good deal of correspondence, I have obtained nearly forty returns, including about 15,000 marriage entries; ten of the returns being from towns, with 10,000 entries, and the others from rural parishes with 5,000 entries. Fortunately, the places are scattered wide: including the towns of Halifax, Bristol, and Lynn; and rural parishes in Yorkshire, Dorsetshire, and Northamptonshire.

One test of accuracy has occurred to me: the last of my periods, 1831-37, approaches nearly to the first period for the whole kingdom given by the Registrar-General. If I had found very different results from the two sets of returns, I should have altogether distrusted mine; but the results are sufficiently alike to give me some confidence that my amateur returns are a fair specimen of the whole kingdom. Taking men and women together, my returns give 59 per cent. of signatures; the Registrar-General's returns give 58 five years later: as some little advance was probably made during the five years, my signatures are too numerous by two: this is taking men and women together; if we take the sexes separately, the difference is larger. Absolutely therefore, my numbers are a little too favourable though much more accurate than I should have expected: for the purpose however, of comparing different periods, they may have considerable weight.

Comparing then, the middle of last century with a period thirty years ago, the most remarkable change is that in the relative position of town and country. On the accession of George III, 56 per cent.

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. ii, pp. 226, 227.

of the townspeople, and only 40 per cent. of the country people, signed their names: on the accession of Her Majesty, the towns people had scarcely improved, but the country people had risen from 40 signatures to 60. These results might have been anticipated: England, during those seventy-seven years, had become a great manufacturing country, and the towns had so far outgrown the means of instruction, that the educational efforts made had effected no improvement; but in the country, the conversion of the clergy to the cause of popular education, and the increased pastoral care arising from the gradual extinction of pluralities, had resulted in a great extension of instruction.

If we compare 1760 with 1800, we see that the towns had actually deteriorated a little, while the rural districts had made a large advance. This last fact may appear strange to those who remember the dear years, and the poverty of the farm-labourers, at the close of the century: but my returns give the marriage signatures of persons educated ten or fifteen years earlier, that is from 1785 to 1790; and it was not till after 1790 that the high prices and the destitution prevailed; so that those married between 1799 and 1804, would not have had their education interfered with.

Taking town and country together, and comparing the *present time* with 1760, the signatures of men and women have risen from 48 to 72, an improvement of 50 per cent.; and the rate of improvement has been far the greatest during the last thirty years.

I cannot doubt then, that a considerable advance was made between 1754 and 1840; and I should have been much surprised if this had not been so, when I recollect the labours of Bell and Lancaster, and the establishment of Sunday Schools by Raikes, and of Infant Schools by Robert Owen and Wilderspin.

Since 1839, we have materials ready to our hands in the Reports of the Registrar-General. From these it appears, that the number of signatures to the marriage registers, were:—

	Men.	Women.	Men and Women together.*
In 1840 (to Midsummer)	66	50	58
„ '51 (to Christmas)	69	55	62
„ '63 „	76	66	71

* I should have said *mean* of men and women, but that a casual glance might confound *mean* and *men*.

In the first period then, of nearly twelve years, the improvement of both sexes together, was 4: in the second period of twelve

years it was no less than 9 : in the twenty-three and a-half years it was 13, viz. from 58 to 71. The women's improvement was greatest; viz. from 50 to 66, or 16 : the men's being only 10; viz. from 66 to 76.

These results are tolerably satisfactory ; the more so because the increased rate of improvement during the last few years, shows that the laborious efforts of the Committee of Council have not been wasted. The following table shows the signatures for each of twenty-six years to 1864.

	Men and Women together.	Improvement in Seven Years.	Men Only.	Women Only.
1839.....	58	—	{ 66	{ 50
1840.....	58	—	{ 66	{ 50
'41.....	59	—	67	51
'42.....	60	—	68	52
'43.....	59	—	67	{ 51
'44.....	59	—	68	{ 51
'45.....	59	—	{ 67	50
'46.....	60	2	{ 67	52
'47.....	62	—	69	54
'48.....	62	—	69	55
'49.....	61	—	{ 69	{ 54
1850.....	61	—	69	{ 54
'51.....	62	—	69	{ 55
'52.....	62	—	69	{ 55
'53.....	63	3	{ 70	56
'54.....	64	—	{ 70	57
'55.....	65	—	{ 70	59
'56.....	65	—	71	60
'57.....	67	—	72	61
'58.....	68	—	{ 73	{ 62
'59.....	68	—	{ 73	{ 62
1860.....	69	6	74	64
'61.....	70	—	75	65
'62.....	71	—	{ 76	67
'63.....	71	—	{ 76	66
'64.....	72	—	77	68

Note.—1865. Men and women together 73, as Dr. Farr kindly informs me.

From this table it appears that the improvement in both sexes taken together, was in the first period of seven years, only 2 ; in the second period of seven years, 3 ; in the third 6.

The women improved far more than the men ; principally, no doubt, because there was more room for improvement. We shall find the same result in other comparisons : we shall see that the counties best educated thirty years ago, have made less progress than the ill educated counties have made ; and we shall see that London,

during the last twenty years, has lost a considerable part of the pre-eminence it formerly enjoyed.

Taking the men alone, the improvement in a quarter of a century, has been from 66 to 77, or 11; against the women's 18. The men's improvement has taken place unequally: from 1838 to 1846 (eight years) 1: then in one year an improvement of 2: from 1847 to 1852 (six years), no improvement: but in the last nine years, from 1855 to 1864, no less than 7, against the women's 9. It seems therefore, that the men improved in twenty-six years 11: in the first seventeen years only 4; and in the last nine years 7.

It must be remembered however, that my tables are compiled from the marriage registers; that they show what faculty of writing exists among young men and women of *marriageable age*: that this age is not the same in the two sexes: that a woman who is married has been at school more recently than a man: that therefore, the women's signatures show the state of school instruction at a more recent date than is shown by the men's signatures. A woman married to day at 21 years' old, was probably at school until 1858: the bridegroom of 25 years' old left school four years earlier. My tables therefore, following the marriage registers, will exhibit school improvement more slowly in the case of men than in the case of women.

IX.—*Comparison with Foreign Countries.*

Prussia.—After ascertaining what progress we are making, we should inquire next, what other nations have done and are doing.

Prussia is the example constantly held up for our imitation. The astonishing victories lately gained by that country, have rather dazzled our eyes; and our gratification at finding that the blood shed has not been for the mere aggrandizement of a dynasty, but for the reconstruction of the German nation,* has impelled some among us to the belief that whatever is Prussian is right. The stock fallacy has prevailed:—the Prussians have been victorious; the Prussians are educated; therefore, the education caused the victories. We have also heard from two eminent writers, much about the *philistinism* of England, and the *geist* of Germany. These declamations, regarded as satires, are wholesome alteratives for us: as to their truth I have seen no evidence offered.

What do we really know as to the elementary instruction of Prussia? As regards mere attendance at school, we are told by the Education Commission, that in Prussia the proportion of the population at school is about 16 per cent.,† against 13 per cent. in England, or probably more than 13 per cent.

* See *Henri de Sybel*, in "Revue des deux Mondes," 65, 491.

† *Statistical Journal*, vol. xxv, p. 51.

As regards the quality of the instruction, we learn from the same Commission, that Europe has been misled by M. Cousin, who hastily confounded an abortive project with a reality.* M. Cousin has told us expressly,† that he long ago experienced great difficulty in conversing with the German philosophers; and Heine, I think, went so far as to assert that M. Cousin was altogether ignorant of German.

As to the diffusion of elementary knowledge we have some direct evidence. M. Henri de Sybel says‡ that of 600,000 men in the Prussian army, all have been at the primary schools, except perhaps 20,000, or 3 per cent. Mr. Kay, of the Temple, informs us§ that he has been a good deal in Prussia, that he can vouch for the excellence of the schools, and the universality of the practice of sending the children to them. I should not have given great weight to Mr. Kay's assertions taken alone; because I know practically, the difficulty of judging correctly on these points even at home; and I am convinced that the difficulty must be far greater in a foreign country. The Education Commission however, show us how the diffusion of education has arisen: they inform us that throughout Protestant Germany, since the Reformation, the law has required that all children should be sent to school. I presume therefore, that Prussia differs from other Protestant German States, in a more rigorous enforcement of this law. After all, this is nearly what has taken place in Scotland; where also since the Reformation schools have been provided, and with satisfactory results until the growth of great towns impeded the practice. I have shown that in some Scottish counties, not a single mark is made to a marriage register.

I wish we had equally trustworthy evidence for each part of Prussia. Mr. Kay indeed, says:—|| “Eighteen years ago the Prussian Government examined all the recruits who came up from *the different provinces* to join the army. I was informed by a member of the Government that the results of that examination showed that only two out of every hundred recruits—that is, out of every hundred of all the young men of the nation of twenty years of age—could not read and write! This great result had been attained eighteen years ago. Since that time the Government has been unremitting in its exertions to promote and improve the education of all classes of the people.” This would be conclusive, if we could be quite sure that Mr. Kay's informant had received from his subordinates perfectly accurate information; that his memory for figures was infallible; and that he was quite incapable of patriotic exaggeration.

* “Westminster Review,” January, 1862, and “Economist,” 11th January, 1862.

† “Revue des deux Mondes,” 64, 605.

‡ Ibid., 65, 500.

§ “Pall Mall Gazette,” 12th September, 1866, p. 3.

|| Ibid.

I hope it will be understood that I do not *disbelieve* the statements of Mr. Kay's informant; but that I wish for confirmatory evidence. I even concede that the statement may be not very far from the truth; for it is well known that during a great part of the present century constant efforts have been made to educate the Prussians. So long ago as 1809, steps were taken to improve the quality of the teachers: in the first volume of our "Transactions," we had the following:—* "From an account of Mr. Wittich of the "Seminaries in Prussia for Schoolmasters for the Working Classes, "it appears that although thirty years has not yet elapsed since "these establishments were *first formed in 1809*, their number has "already increased to about fifty; and it is thought that the number "of teachers issuing from them annually is sufficient to satisfy the "present demand. Every person in Prussia may apply for the "admission of their sons into these seminaries. At a certain period "of the year all the aspirants are summoned and examined, and "those who evince the most knowledge and talent, and whose moral "conduct bears examination, are admitted. They are allowed to "remain in the school three years, at the expiration of which time "they are examined, and receive testimonials according to their proficiency, which are divided into three classes, and characterised by "the expressions—*distinguished, good, and sufficiently instructed.*" Further particulars will be found in an article of 1847† written by Mr. Bernard Hebel, the Consul-General for Prussia; which told us that nearly 16 per cent. of the whole population were at school. He did not however, give any results such as those furnished by Mr. Kay. Mr. Hebel stated‡ that there were forty-one training schools, a number rather less than that given by Mr. Wittich: that the youths in training were 2,546; and that this was believed to be sufficient to supply 838 annual vacancies.

A less favourable sketch has recently been drawn by Mr. Grant Duff, whose authority must have great weight with us. He first§ gives a passage from Mr. Horace Mann; written indeed in 1843, but quoted by Mr. Pattison in his report to the Royal Commission; and assumed both by Mr. Pattison and by Mr. Grant Duff to be applicable to a very recent period.

"A proverb has obtained currency in Prussia which explains the "whole mystery of the relation between their schools and their life: " 'The School is good; the World is bad.' The quiescence or "torpidity of social life stifles the activity excited in the school-room. "Whatever pernicious habits and customs exist in the community "act as antagonistic forces against the moral training of the teacher.

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. i, p. 47.

† *Ibid.*, vol. x, p. 164.

‡ *Ibid.*, p. 167.

§ "Studies in European Politics," 220.

“The power of the Government presses upon the partially-developed faculties of the youth as with a mountain’s weight. . . .
 “When the children come out from the school they have little use either for the faculties that have been developed, or for the knowledge that has been acquired.”

Mr. Grant Duff makes the following comments on Mr. Horace Mann:—“We recommend this passage to the consideration of those who think that the reason why the Prussians do not make greater exertions to obtain the management of their own affairs, is, that they have been over-educated by a too zealous government.”

Mr. Kay, as I have shown, believes that of all the men of 20 years old throughout the nation, only 2 per cent. are unable to write. Mr. Grant Duff’s testimony is more restrained,* though it goes farther as to one province.

“That elementary instruction in Prussia is in an advanced state is indisputable. *It is now said* that of the recruits from the Saxon province only 4 in 1,000 are unable to read, write, and cipher; but before 1848 the stagnation of the peasant’s intelligence was indescribable. He did nothing with his elementary instruction when he had got it—at least in many districts.”

On the whole I cannot doubt that the elementary instruction of Prussia is highly satisfactory, and that this is the result of the persistent efforts of two generations of statesmen. The Prussians set to work earnestly nearly sixty years ago: we, not thirty years ago. Prussia found in its law, existing since the Reformation, the means of compelling parents to use the schools provided: we have hitherto wisely abstained from compulsion, except in the case of the Factory Acts. Prussia is in advance of us, and no wonder; since she worked while we slept.

The Prussian efforts are the more remarkable, as having been made in a country oppressed by poverty, by the prejudices of an *oligarchy*, and as it is said by the ravages of a war of two centuries ago.

“There are few things more melancholy than to talk to an average Prussian officer, and to see how little his thoughts have travelled beyond his narrow, old-fashioned, poverty-stricken, little world. Indeed, it is this same poverty that meets one at every turn in dealing with Prussian affairs. If the class from which the officers are recruited were a *real aristocracy*, with wealth and wide-reaching European connections, their sons could not be half so wedded as they are to antiquated pretensions at which their foreign associates would only smile.”†

“When Germans tell us, as they often do, that their country is only just recovering the ravages of the Thirty Years’ War, we are at first tempted to smile; but if we examine into the matter closely,

* “Studies in European Politics,” 221.

† Ibid., 243.

“ we shall find that their statement is *literally and perfectly* correct.
 “ It is only in this century that Prussia has become anything more
 “ than a court, an army, and a bureaucracy. The real wonder is, not
 “ that she is so far back, but that she has made so much progress.”*

Various Countries.—Prussia is ahead of us, and she is ahead of most other European countries, though not of the best parts of the United States. In an article† of 1840, on Belgian Education, by Mr. Rawson, then Hon. Secretary to this Society, we had a table of the attendance at school in various countries. It appears that about thirty years ago, in Maine and New Hampshire, a third of the population was at school: in several other New England States,‡ in New York State, and in Ohio, about a fourth: in certain cantons of Switzerland, in Prussia, Bohemia, and Baden, from a sixth to a fifth: in Scotland, Holland, and Bavaria, an eighth: in Austria and Belgium,§ a tenth: in England an eleventh: in France and Ireland, a thirteenth. Thirty years ago therefore, parts of the United States were ahead of Prussia as to the number of children at school; Saxony, Bohemia, and parts of Switzerland, were slightly ahead of Prussia: Denmark, Norway, Wurtemberg, were below her, and above Scotland: England, notwithstanding improvement, was much below Prussia. Since that time, the attendance of Prussia has not increased: apparently however, the quality of the instruction given has been carefully improved. England, Ireland, and Scotland, have made much progress both in attendance and in excellence.

Of course, we cannot accept these figures as anything more than approximations to the truth, and we ought to test their correctness by other means. As to France, I find M. Villemain giving a return|| seven years later a little more favourable: as 13 to 12; no remarkable difference, allowing for seven years' growth. Recently, Mr. Horace Mann states¶ the attendance in France as a ninth part of the population, showing a growth in twenty years, from one-twelfth to one-ninth; and in twenty-seven years from one-thirteenth to one-ninth. Holland seems stationary at a moderately high level: her

* “Studies in European Politics,” 248.

† *Statistical Journal*, vol. ii, p. 386, note.

‡ This large proportion contradicts our European calculations. It is explained by what I heard long ago from an American merchant; who told me that he was the son of a New England farmer, and that he had gone to school only during the winters. Of course his education would continue much longer than that of boys regularly at school; and as all young persons from 4 to 21 are regarded as of school age, and one-half apparently may attend school, the number appears large. I find summer schools and winter schools distinguished, in the State of Maine.—“National Almanac,” 1863, p. 343.

§ It appeared that after the Revolution of 1830 the education of Belgium fell off.—*Statistical Journal*, vol. ii, p. 388. But according to the “Annuaire Statistique Belge,” it has again risen to one-ninth of the population, pp. 12 and 133.

|| *Statistical Journal*, vol. x, p. 167.

¶ *Ibid.*, vol. xxv, p. 51.

attendance in 1835 being given as one in* 8·3, and one in 8·11† quite recently. As regards foreign countries, these various accounts are tolerably consistent with each other.

Letters.—Some persons may think that the number of letters written in various places, may indicate the relative facility of writing: but far the greater part of letters are written from necessity, on matters of business; and the number of these will depend on the kind of business carried on. Most farmers can write, but their business is generally performed at market by word of mouth; and therefore, the number of rural letters is small.

M. Block,‡ comparing one *country* with another, regards railway movements, telegrams, and letters, as metres of public prosperity; which however, is a different thing from public instruction. He gives the following schedule, of the number of letters to each 1,000 persons:—

Great Britain	1,907	Bavaria	348
Switzerland	1,620	Spain	274
United States	706	Hanover :	234
France	699	Austria	155
Prussia	669	Denmark	126
Holland.....	492	Chili	39
Belgium.....	438	Portugal.....	24
Saxony	413	Russia	23

The small number in Prussia is remarkable, and shows that this comparison proves nothing as to the diffusion of education in one country and another. But the great number of letters in Great Britain, by raising the commercial value of writing, is favourable to the future promotion of instruction in it.

Spain.—It is possible unfortunately, for a great many children to be at school, while very little instruction is given. Even Spain, backward as it is politically, has made advances in the number at school. Mr. Grant Duff, quoting the late “Home and Foreign Review,” states that there has been considerable progress. Comparing the particulars he gives, with those derived from another source,§ we find the number at school to have been:—

In 1851	839,000
„ ’55	1,004,000
„ 1861	1,046,000

Besides the increase in numbers, the proportion of girls to boys has risen much. I should like to know how many of these pupils

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. ii, p. 386.

† *Ibid.*, vol. xxv, p. 51.

‡ Block, “*Puissance Comparée*,” Gotha, 1862.

§ Grant Duff, “*Studies in European Politics*,” 50, 51; and *Statistical Journal*, vol. xxiii, p. 171.

learn to write, and retain the accomplishment at the age of marriage. The “Pall Mall” of 3rd January, p. 2, tells us that among the 72,157 municipal councillors 12,479 (17 per cent.) cannot even read; and that among these utterly uninstructed men there are 422 mayors and 932 deputy mayors.

Italy.—As to Italy I find the following paragraph in one of the most trustworthy of all our periodicals:—*

“A report has just been submitted to the Italian Government “on the education of the people, &c.

“Out of 21,777,534 people, 16,999,701 are unable either to read “or write. An Italian who cannot read is not so ignorant as an “Englishman in the same position, but there is nevertheless ample “work for the schoolmaster. In Piedmont only half the population “is able to read,” &c.

A casual glance at this statement may appear to justify the editor’s epithet of *frightful*: but some qualifications will be suggested by reflection. First, if the Italian population is of similar ages with our own, one-fourth is under 10 years;† and as children in the south of Europe, run wild much later than they do in England, those who cannot read at 10, will probably learn afterwards: this reduces the seventeen millions of blameably ignorant by four millions and a quarter. Secondly, as in France, so in Italy, the disturbed condition of Europe would hinder education during the first twenty years of the century; and it is only persons under 45 years old that could be expected as a rule to read. But the population over 45, is probably a fifth of the whole. We have thus 45 per cent. of the whole population, among whom ignorance of reading is no reproach. It may be therefore, that of those who might be expected to read, one-half can do so: a low proportion certainly, but a very much better one than the apparent 4 out of 21. Again, if in Piedmont half of the men, women, and children, can read, there is little to complain of.

France.—When we come to France, we have, as we might have expected, tolerably full information. The Emperor of the French, while he was President, furnished details as to the numbers under instruction: in a message to the Assembly, on the 7th June, 1849, he said‡ that the primary (or elementary) schools contained,

2,176,079 boys	} total 3,530,135
1,354,056 girls	

or something like 1 in 10 of the population.

He also enumerated the establishments for superior instruction.

Recently, the Emperor has shown his desire to promote education,

* “Spectator,” 29th April, 1865.

† *Statistical Journal*, March, 1866, p. 102.

‡ “Œuvres de Napoléon III,” tome troisième, 68.

by ordering or permitting, an inquiry into the present English proceedings. The Préfet de la Seine sent over here M. Motheré, a gentleman of much intelligence, and possessing a very unusual familiarity with the English language. The Report of M.M. Marguerin and Motheré is well worthy our study.*

We have, in the Report of the Royal Commission, an excellent history of the French proceedings during this century.† Mr. Matthew Arnold was sent to the continent to obtain information. After consulting M. Guizot and other distinguished men, and after visiting many schools in different parts, he gave an elaborate report.

He tells us that the Revolution of 1789, while decreeing universal instruction, furnished no means but a “deluge of words:”‡ that up to 1801, the disappearance of the old and inferior village schools, had left a blank quite unfilled, and a disorganization deeply felt:§ that seven years later, (1808) half the communes had no school at all; and the other half had only old and infirm teachers, with no younger persons to succeed them:|| that little was done till 1816, when the Restored Government determined on action; for “Other Governments had decreed systems . . . the Government of the “Restoration decreed funds:”¶ that from this date till the Revolution of 1830, the elementary instruction was not brilliant and was still less sound:** that in 1833 however, a great move was made by M. Guizot; and that the law then passed was “full of good sense, “full of fruitful ideas, full of toleration, full of equity;” with “the “still greater merit of attaining the object it had in view:”†† that the results of the law were prodigious; the 13 normal schools of 1830, having grown to 76 in 1838; and in the four years from 1834 to 1838, 4,557 public schools, the property of the communes, having been added to the 10,316 which existed in 1834:‡‡ that up to 1847, the teachers had been left with very insufficient salaries, but that it was determined in that year to correct this fault; that the Revolution of 1848 however, arrested the promised measure, while it unfortunately made the masters the instruments of preaching republicanism:§§ that even now the salaries are miserably low, the minimum being 20*l.* a-year:|||| that finally, the taxation levied for instruction, does not extinguish voluntary efforts for their support.¶¶

* “De l’Enseignement des Classes Moyennes et des Classes Ouvrières en Angleterre.” Rapport par M.M. Marguerin (Directeur, &c.) et Motheré (Professeur, &c.), 1864.

† “Education Commission” 1861, vol. iv, pp. 15 to 121.

‡ Ibid., p. 29.

§ Ibid., p. 31.

|| Ibid., p. 34.

¶ Ibid., p. 35.

** Ibid., p. 38.

†† Ibid., p. 40: the law’s given in full at pp. 106—111.

‡‡ Ibid., p. 43.

§§ Ibid., pp. 45, 46.

|||| Ibid., p. 50.

¶¶ Ibid., p. 62.

Whatever may have been the rate of progress in France during the last few years, a great deal has been done in thirty years. The conscription takes men from all ranks, except the few who can afford to buy exemption. As all who do buy exemption, are probably able to write, the average signatures of the conscripts would fall rather below that of the whole male population of the same age: though judging from our own recruits (a lower class on the average than the French), the difference is not great.

Now in 1827 to 1829, as M. Guerry tells us,* only 38 per cent. could write; but at first sight, we might presume some error in this, as in 1835, nearly one-half could write. It must be remembered however, that Napoleon's wars so disturbed the peaceful occupations of France, that the conscripts of 1827-29, who were born about 1807-09, may have missed the instruction which those born six or eight years later may have enjoyed. It is startling enough to find that even among the conscripts of 1835, not quite half could write. The progress since that time has been great; for as we have seen, in 1859, no less than 69 per cent. of the men signed their names to the marriage registers.

South America.—I pass now to the other side of the Atlantic. But before giving any particulars as to the United States, I must quote a statement as to South America: a statement so surprising, that but for the trustworthy character of the original, I should have disregarded it. In a recent number of the "*Revue des deux Mondes*,"† we are told of the States now at war with Brazil:—"As to the intellectual and moral progress of these youthful States, they are as unquestionable as their material progress. Notwithstanding a frequent affectation of speaking about them with a kind of pity, as communities destined to relapse into barbarism, it is not the less true, that education is diffusing itself more and more every day among these Spanish-American Republics. In most of them the newspapers are entirely free, and are circulated by thousands: libraries and schools are multiplied; and already in some of the States there is a greater proportion of citizens who can read and write than we find in the countries of Western Europe, as Spain, France, and England. In Paraguay particularly, there is scarcely a descendant of the ancient Guaranis unable to sign his name." Whatever deduction we may make for unintentional exaggeration, we must feel that there is a hopeful future for these States; and we must rejoice that they have been able to hold their own against the great slave-power of Brazil.

United States.—The general diffusion of education in the United States, is well known. Nearly thirty years ago, a statement

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. ii, 189.

† "*Revue des deux Mondes*," 15th October, 1866, pp. 978, 979.

of the condition of the schools, is found among the records of this Society.* In a letter from an American gentleman, Dr. Potter, we are told:—"In respect to common schools, the secretary" (of the British Association) "is doubtless aware that in nearly all the States they are placed by law under the immediate supervision of the Government, and that a large proportion of the expense of maintaining them is discharged by the State treasury. In the State of New York, by means of this system more than nine-tenths of all the children between the ages of 5 and 15 are brought into schools and taught the first elements of knowledge. It must be acknowledged, however, that, owing in part to the deficient qualifications of the teachers, and still more to the indifference of parents, the education imparted in many of these schools is exceedingly imperfect. Of this there is a growing conviction among the people, and this conviction has led to various measures for improving the condition of our common schools. Among these may be mentioned the establishment of newspapers devoted to the interests of education; the formation of societies to improve the character of school books; the construction of school-houses, and the qualifications of teachers; and also the exercise, on the part of the State, of greater care in organising, and greater liberality in supporting, the schools. In the State of New York about 1,000,000*l.* has been recently appropriated by the legislature to advance the interests of education."

This extract applies to a past generation: I will now give an account of recent proceedings.

In my Appendix O, will be found the particulars of the sums applied by the authorities of eighteen States, towards the maintenance of the "Common Schools." A large part of this money consists of a share of the proceeds of the sales of land. What is called "the School Fund" is applied to education generally.

My authority is the *National Almanac*† for 1863: the population is that of the census of 1860; and the figures given are of such a date as to have been little disturbed by the civil war: I therefore reckon the dollar at 50*d.*, and the cent at $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*

These eighteen States include most of the older free States, and some important new ones: the population is 19 millions. Their entire public outlay for the "Common Schools" only, was nearly 19 million dollars; or a dollar a-head for man, woman, and child. If we exclude the Slave State of Kentucky, the population in my table is about 18 millions, and the public outlay about 18½ million dollars: or to be exact, 4*s.* 3*d.* a-head. In the same proportion, we, instead of less than a million, ought to expend six millions sterling.

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. vii, p. 383.

† Mr. Elihu Burritt tells me I may trust this publication.

The following extract,* strictly statistical, gives a good notion of the financial arrangements—

MAINE.—“*School Fund.* The *permanent* school fund of the “State on the 1st January, 1862, was \$158,336. It is increased “annually from the sales of reserved lands, of which 487,567 “acres are set apart for this purpose, and 20 per cent. of all “moneys hereafter received from the sale of State lands, and the “amount due on notes given for school lands, of which nearly “\$30,000 is yet outstanding. The amount apportioned for the year “ending 31st December, 1862, was \$68,043. The *banks are taxed* “1 per cent. on their capital for the support of schools, the tax “amounting in 1861 to \$78,059. The towns are obliged to raise “by tax for school purposes a sum equal to 60 cents for each “inhabitant, as the condition of receiving their share of the school “money.”

“*Common Schools.* The report of Honourable E. P. Weston, “Superintendent of Common Schools, for the year ending December “1861, gives the following statistics. Number of towns in the “State, 399, from 395 of which returns were received; number of “organized plantations 116, from 68 of which returns were received; “number of school districts, 4,151; number of parts of districts, “360; number of persons between 4 and 21 years of age 249,061; “number registered in *summer* schools 138,924; average attendance “105,381; number registered in *winter* schools 148,571; average “attendance 116,557; average attendance for summer and winter “110,969; rates of average attendance to number of persons of “school age† 45 per cent. Average length of schools 5·35 months; “number of school-houses in the State 4,010; number reported in “good condition 2,157; number built during the year 119; cost of “the same‡ \$92,358; estimated value of all the school-houses in the “State \$1,250,000;§ number of male teachers employed 2,995; “number of *female* teachers 4,926; wages of male teachers per “month, exclusive of board, \$22; inclusive of board \$28;|| wages of “female teachers per month, exclusive of board, \$8¾; inclusive of “board \$13.¶ School money raised by taxation, \$478,017, an excess “of \$64,626 above the requirement of the law; average amount “raised per scholar \$1·62 (6s. 9d.); amount of public school fund “\$154,760; interest of same apportioned to schools \$9,280; bank “tax distributed to schools \$76,128; amount derived from local “funds \$19,210; contributed to prolong public schools \$12,483;

* “National Almanac, 1863,” p. 343.

† “Persons of school age,” means all between 4 and 21.

‡ About 160*l.* each.

§ About 63*l.* each.

|| About 75*l.*, a-year; a very low rate: half of what our best masters get; and that in a country where wages are higher than with us.

¶ About 35*l.* a-year: the cost of a respectable female servant in England.

“ amount paid for private schools \$43,517; paid for repairs, fuel, &c.,
 “ \$57,013; average cost of board per week \$1.45; estimated amount
 “ paid for board \$134,390; amount paid for school supervision
 “ \$12,056; *aggregate expenditure* for school purposes \$742,952;
 “ number of towns that have their schools graded in part 137;
 “ number of towns that raised \$4 or over per scholar by taxation 1;
 “ number that raised \$3 and over 3; number that raised \$2 and
 “ over 42; less than \$2, 357. The State in 1860 appropriated
 “ \$3,600 per annum, to be distributed in sums of \$200 each to one
 “ academy or seminary in each county, as part compensation for the
 “ instruction of normal classes for two terms each year; the male
 “ teachers attending to pay a further sum of \$1 per term, and the
 “ female teachers 50 cents per term. Under this law, fifteen of the
 “ eighteen designated seminaries had a normal class in the spring of
 “ 1861, and fourteen in the autumn of that year; the spring sessions
 “ were attended by 216 male and 241 female pupils, and the autumn
 “ sessions by 454 males and 438 females. Although some benefits
 “ resulted from this instruction, the superintendent regards the plan
 “ as objectionable, and suggests its abrogation, and the establishment
 “ of a normal school in its stead. He also recommends the intro-
 “ duction of object-teaching, and a uniformity in school-books
 “ throughout the State.”

By referring to my Table O, it will be seen that Maine, the State
 to which this extract refers, is not exceptionally liberal: more being
 done by four other States; viz.: Illinois, Massachusetts, California,
 and Ohio; and nearly as much by Wisconsin, Michigan, Connecticut,
 Iowa, Pennsylvania, and others. The lowest of the free States is
 New York; which assigns only 2s. 9d. a-head of population, against
 Maine's 4s. 11d. Others, in order of demerit, are Vermont 2s. 11d.;
 Delaware 3s. 3d.; New Jersey 3s. 4d.; Maryland 3s. 5d.; New
 Hampshire 3s. 6d. Rhode Island nearly reaches 4s.; and all the
 others vary from over 4s. to 6s. 7d. in the case of Illinois.

The circumstance that strikes me most is the high rate in the new
 States, as Ohio, and still more California: it exhibits strongly the
 wisdom of the law which provides by a self-acting process for the
 supply of instruction, by appropriating a certain proportion of the
 proceeds of land sales: it is in striking contrast with the timid
 measures of Europe, where the means of instruction are always
 halting in the rear of the want; leaving great towns to grow up
 in ignorance, and then too late stepping in to correct it. The
 Americans are hearty friends to education: the better classes in
 Europe half fear it, seeing that it leads to an increase of democratic
 power.

As to the excellence of American education, there are in the
 Maine return some figures which require explanation. I do not

doubt that the children learn to read and write; but it cannot be supposed that their teachers do much else for them, when it is noticed that in a country where wages are high, the men teachers get only 75*l.* a-year, and the women teachers only 35*l.* a-year. I say nothing of the low character of the school-houses (which in Maine are valued at only 63*l.* each) because excellent instruction may be imparted in a barn.

On the whole, the United States' liberality puts to the blush the puny efforts we are making. I am convinced indeed, by personal observations during the last ten years, that the million, or less, that we do spare, is applied with wonderful success: I know that our masters and mistresses thoroughly understand their business, and communicate elementary knowledge in a most thorough fashion: but I am ashamed to think how grudgingly the money is voted by Parliament; and I long for more of the American and Prussian determination to educate all children at whatever cost may be needful.

X.—*Comparison of Various Parts of England.*

I have thus concluded several comparisons which I proposed to make: first, between England, Ireland, and Scotland; so far as my materials have permitted: secondly, between England and certain foreign countries; especially Prussia, France, and the United States: thirdly between England now and England formerly; indicating slightly the progress made since the framing of Lord Hardwicke's Act in 1753, and more fully the progress made since the first date of the valuable returns of the Registrar-General.

I will now show what is, and has been, the relative condition of the different *parts* of England: co-ordinating first, the eleven great divisions; next the counties; then the great towns; then certain districts of London: comparing also the rural districts with the towns, and men with women.

XI.—*The Eleven Poor Law Divisions.*

For the purpose of comparison, I take as my standard, the signatures throughout England and Wales in 1863:—viz., men 76: women 67: men and women 72.

In 1863 the divisions *above* this standard, were London 86, South Eastern 80, South Western 74, Northern 74.

Neither above nor below, North Midland 72.

Below:—York 70, South Midland 69, Eastern 69, West Midland 66, North Western 64, Wales 56.

The order in excellence in 1863, was;—London, South Eastern, South Western and Northern, North Midland, South

Midland and Eastern, York, West Midland, North Western, Wales.

As to progress for each period of twelve years :—during 1840-51, the greatest advance was made by the eastern division, the least by London :—during 1851-63 the eastern and the north western advanced most. During the same period of 1851-63, the least advance was again made by London, and the least but one by the northern division. It must be remembered however, that for a division already very high on the list, much progress is impossible : in 1840, the London men signed the marriage registers to the extent of 88 per cent. ; and the women to the extent of 75 per cent. ; while the north western men were worse than the Londoners by 27 and the women by 41. The same remark applies, though with less force, to the northern division. Taking the entire period of twenty-three and a-half years, the greatest improvement was made by the eastern division ; the least by London and the northern division.

XII.—*The Counties.*

I will follow the same order as that of the divisions.

1863, Signatures in England and Wales, of men and women taken together, 72.

1863, Counties above this standard ;—Westmorland by 11 ; Sussex 10 ; Middlesex (extra metropolitan) 9 ; Hants and Surrey 8 ; North Riding 7 ; Gloucestershire 5 ; East Riding, Devonshire, Kent, Northumberland, Cumberland, and Rutland 4 ; Lincoln and Oxon 3.

Counties which just reached the standard of 72 ;—Derby, Leicester, Northampton, Somerset, Warwick, and Wilts.

Counties below this standard ;—Hereford by 5 ; Hertfordshire and Salop 6 ; Bucks and Cornwall 7 ; Lancashire 10 ; North Wales and Bedfordshire, 14 ; South Wales, Monmouthshire, and Stafford 17.

Progress.—From 1840 to 1851 the progress made by the whole kingdom was from 58 signatures to 62. The county that made the greatest progress was Worcestershire, from 47 to 59 ; the next was Cambridgeshire, from 47 to 56. Rutland and Stafford actually lost a little ground ; and London was nearly stationary.

During the next twelve years, from 1851 to 1863, the progress was far greater ; being for the whole country from 62 to 72. Of the counties, Wilts advanced the most ; from 55 to 72 : Essex and Hertfordshire nearly as much. Cumberland actually went back a little ; London advanced only from 82 to 86.

During the twenty-three and a half years, London advanced only 4, from 82 to 86 ; while the whole country advanced 14, from 58 to 72. Essex advanced 25 ; Wilts 23 ; West Riding and Worcester 21 ; Cambridge, Hertfordshire, and Huntingdon 20.

XIII.—*The Great Towns.*

1864, Signatures of men and women together in England and Wales, 72.

Much above this standard:—Cheltenham 15; Bath, Brighton, and Southampton, 14; Portsmouth and York, 12. Moderately above:—Hull and Norwich 6; Derby 5; Bristol and Newcastle-on-Tyne 4; Plymouth 3; Chester, Yarmouth, and Leicester 2; Nottingham 1.

A little below:—Birmingham* 2; Coventry, Leeds,* and Sunderland 3; Macclesfield 4; Liverpool* and Manchester* 5; Sheffield 6.

Much below:—Bradford and Gateshead 10; Salford 12; Stockport 14; Oldham 15; Blackburn and Wolverhampton 19; Preston 21.

Progress during the eighteen years:—England and Wales 13. Oldham 26; Bolton 23; Bradford 20; Wolverhampton 19; Macclesfield 16; Manchester 14.

Salford apparently lost 12 during the eighteen years; but this was owing to a division of the ancient parish of Manchester.

Gateshead lost a little ground.

The case of Oldham is really remarkable. In 1846 signatures were given by only 16 women in the 100, and by only 46 men. Blackburn was nearly as bad, and Bradford was not much better.

XIV.—*Some London Districts.*

1864	Signatures of men and women together in England and Wales.....	72
„	„	all London†
		86

I only give fourteen of the districts into which London is divided. Of these, there are:—

Much above the *London* standard; St. George's Hanover Square, and St. James' Westminster, in both of which only 3 per cent. failed to sign.

Above the London standard, and therefore much above the standard of the whole country:—Marylebone, St. Martin in the Fields, and Lewisham.

Up to the London standard:—the Strand.

Below the London standard, but above that of the whole country:—St. Giles; Shoreditch; Bermondsey; the City, and Whitechapel.

* These are the Poor Law Districts only, that is the worst parts of the boroughs: whereas in many smaller towns, the district includes far more than the borough.

† London here includes a very wide area, stretching in one direction as far as Sydenham.

Up to the standard of the whole country:—St. George in the East.

Below even the standard of the whole country:—Bethnal Green by 7 signatures (the men being 2 below and the women 12).

Progress during the eighteen years. England and Wales 13 : London 4 ; Lewisham 16 ; Shoreditch and Whitechapel 5 ; St. Martin in the Fields 4 ; St. James, Westminster, and St. George, Southwark 3 ; St. Giles 2 ; St. George Hanover Square and Marylebone 1 ; Bethnal Green 7.

Several have retrograded:—Strand by 1 ; Bermondsey by 2 ; City by 4 ; St. George in the East by 9.

XV.—*Comparison of Town and Country.*

A comparison of town registers with rural registers, is not so conclusive as that of town with town, or of county with county. In many town churches marriages are performed by the score, and little pressure is put on the signitaries to induce them to write: in the country, marriages being comparatively few, the clergyman uses some persuasion to procure written signatures.

Besides this, the newly married persons in the large town churches, are generally strangers to the church, whereas in the country they are known to the clergyman, who urges their writing when they can do so, and commonly, though not always, urges it successfully.

The comparison is therefore, more or less unfair to the towns.

On the other hand, the couples living together unmarried, are in rural districts very rare ; but among the lowest people of the towns more numerous: the farm labourers who live and die bachelors, are I believe very few ; but among the lowest town people, the dregs of the whole country, who hide themselves in courts and alleys, they must be in greater numbers. But these are on the average the most ignorant of the population; and would add to the signatures by mark in the town registers. The comparison is therefore, in this second respect, unfair to the rural districts.

I am quite unable to estimate the degree of disturbance arising from these causes: I cannot say whether they balance each other. I can only give the comparisons subject to modification on these grounds. I do not believe however, that the balance of disturbances is considerable: I believe that comparing actual written signatures in the country, and in most towns, we shall form a fair estimate of the respective education obtained ten or twelve years before.

I see no reason therefore, for admitting the truth of assertions made as to the greater ignorance of our farm labourers: I find from my tables, that the counties in which agriculture prevails, furnish as much writing as the counties in which town pursuits prevail. Yet

we find Professor Fawcett writing in this way: * “Improved schools, enormous educational grants, and a general zeal for instructing the poor, have failed to educate the agricultural labourers.” † “The children are constantly sent to work when they are 8 or 9 years old; they have *not* acquired even the *first rudiments* of education, and it is consequently no exaggeration to say, that our agricultural population as a general rule *can neither read nor write.*” And so able a paper as the “Economist” recently said: ‡ “The other great moral and economical evil of our present social condition with which the member for Brighton” (Professor Fawcett) “grappled in a very able speech at Manchester, was the *crass and hopeless ignorance* of our agricultural labourers . . . he demanded the application of the principle of the factory law to agricultural labourers.”

I quite agree with Mr. Fawcett in this demand, but I tremble to see it based on alleged inferiority of rural education, because I see that that ground cannot be maintained.

Let us see the number of signatures in writing, in the agricultural counties.

In the whole of England and Wales they are 72.

In the agricultural counties, having four acres and upwards to each person, they are as follow. Westmoreland 83; North Riding 82; Lincoln and Rutland 76: all these surpass the whole country: Hereford 67; North Wales 58; South Wales 55: these are far below the whole country.

In the counties where towns prevail they are as follow. Stafford 55; Lancashire 62; Cheshire 67; West Riding and Worcester 68; Durham and Notts 69; these large and thickly peopled counties are much below the standard. Derby and Warwick 72: just up to the standard. Gloucester 77; Kent (extra metropolitan) 79; Surrey and Middlesex (extra metropolitan) 81: these are much above the standard.

<i>Best Agricultural Counties.</i>		<i>Best Counties with Large Town Population.</i>	
Westmoreland	83	Middlesex (<i>extra metropolitan</i>)	81
Sussex	82	Surrey	81
Hants.....	81	Kent	79
Lincoln	76	Gloucester.....	77
Rutland.....	76	Derby.....	72
		Warwick	72
<i>Worst Agricultural Counties.</i>		<i>Worst Counties with Large Town Population.</i>	
South Wales	55	Staffordshire	55
North Wales.....	58	Lancashire.....	62
Hereford	67	Cheshire.....	67
		West Riding	68

* “Manual,” p. 212. Second edition.

† “The Economical Position,” p. 131.

‡ “Economist,” 13th October, 1866, pp. 1192—93.

There is little difference between the agricultural counties and the others, taking the best and the worst into account.

Persons making these remarks, are perhaps really thinking of those counties in which the lowest wages are paid; and particularly of Devonshire, Dorsetshire, and Wiltshire. But the facts are against them here also. Taking my previous mode of comparison, Devonshire is 6 above the standard, Dorset is 2 above, and Wilts is just up to the standard. All three are far above the great manufacturing counties; above Stafford by nearly 20, above Lancashire by about 12, above the West Riding by 4 to 10.

The improvement too, has been satisfactory: in Devon and Dorset as great as that of the whole country, and in Wilts far greater.

If we put comparisons aside, we still find Professor Fawcett hopelessly in error. He says that the "agricultural population" as a general rule can neither read nor write." I find that in the worst paid counties they can, as a general rule, not only read but also write. In Devonshire 78 per cent., in Dorsetshire 74 per cent., in Wilts 72 per cent., actually sign their names. No doubt, a few more than these can write a little, and a still larger number can read. Probably four-fifths can read. Still larger numbers can write in Westmoreland (82), Sussex (82), Hants (81), Lincoln and Rutland (76). On which side is the "general rule?"

XVI.—*Comparison of the Sexes.*

Hitherto I have taken men and women together in making my comparisons: I will now take the men and the women separately.

Generally we shall find the men superior: this is especially true of Lancashire and Cheshire, the greatest manufacturing region: in some agricultural counties the proportion is reversed. Boys go early into the fields, and leave their sisters at school: girls in the textile districts go early into factories. Throughout the world, education is of more value to the male sex, as a means of advancement; and girls are kept more from school, to help their mothers.

In the Eleven Poor Law Divisions.

1863. Signatures throughout England and Wales—76 men, 67 women: therefore the men are better by 9.

In the eastern division, the *women* are better by 4; and in the south eastern by 3.

The men are better in the south western by 3; in the west midland by 6; London 7; north midland 8; northern 13; Welsh 16; Yorkshire 17; north western (Lancashire and Cheshire) 22.

The Counties.—The most remarkable counties are as follow:

Suffolk, where the women excel by 7 ; and Berks by 6. In Oxfordshire men and women are equal.

The women are worse than the men by 13 to 14 in Northumberland, Cumberland, Durham, and North Wales ; by 16 in Cheshire ; by 19 in the West Riding ; by 20 in South Wales ; by 24 in Lancashire. In these counties however, the women have improved far more than the men : except Lancashire where the improvement in twenty-three and a-half years has been, men 13, women 16 ; and South Wales 11 and 15 respectively.

The Towns.—Still greater differences are found in certain towns. In Southampton indeed, the sexes are equal in excellence. The women are worse in these places : Cheltenham by 2 ; Bath and Yarmouth 3 ; Brighton 4 ; London 6 ; Norwich, Portsmouth, and York 7 ; Birmingham and Chester 9 ; Plymouth 10.

The women are far worse than the men, in Blackburn and Oldham by 34 ; Bradford 29 ; Bolton 28 ; Manchester 27 ; Preston 26 ; Macclesfield and Stockport 24 ; Coventry 22.

In certain London Districts.

In none of these are the women better. In St. George's Hanover Square they are equal. They are worse in most of the districts by 3 to 8 : in Bethnal Green by 19.

XVII.—*What has been Done.*

It is only during the last twenty years that any considerable, systematic, efforts have been made by the State, to promote school instruction ; and it is little more than ten years since the present admirable machinery was got thoroughly to work.

Sunday Schools.—In the last century, the invention of Sunday Schools was, no doubt, a great step ; and most of us would regret any diminution of the number of such schools. But it cannot be pretended that any great amount of instruction is given in them. The English and Scotch Protestant notions as to the sacredness of the first day of the week, limits the Sunday teaching to the unpaid, slovenly, action of amateurs ; and expends a large part of the children's time in listening to one, if not two, long services and sermons which they do not understand.* If the Sunday Schools were conducted by trained and paid teachers, and were assisted and controlled by the Privy Council, what might not be done ! At present, we give up a seventh of our time to rest and religion, with the result, as to the labouring classes, of exposing them, during a whole day in the week, to the evils of idleness and consequent sensuality. Any one familiar with great towns, knows that workmen

* Some zealous clergymen, I know, have a special service and sermon in the school room.

on Sundays, do not go to church, and do haunt taverns. The actual educational progress we have made, is owing but in a slight degree to Sunday Schools.

Privy Council.—The real instrument of recent progress is the system of the Privy Council;* with its assistance given to building school-rooms, and to maintaining schools; with its inspection of instruction, furnishing competent teachers and pupil teachers, and advising all who wish to promote education. The public is quite unaware of the excellence of the work done. I know by observation, that the elementary subjects are better taught in the good inspected schools, than in the good schools of the better classes. When indeed we hear that 500 boys are assembled under one roof, we assume that they must be badly taught: the truth is that the children who attend regularly are extremely well taught: in such good schools, the children who fail to learn are those who, through the carelessness or poverty of the parents, are kept at home a large part of their time, or wander from school to school. I have no means of making an exact comparison of our machinery with that of other nations; but I should be surprised to find anything nearly so good in France, Prussia, the United States, or any other country.

Revised Code.—I am not competent to defend or attack in all its provisions, the new system known as the Revised Code: I see that it has caused an unhappy irritation in the minds of many excellent and upright masters and mistresses, who feel that they lost suddenly, and by no fault of their own, emoluments which they had a reasonable expectation of continuing to receive: I fear that parsimony, and a desire to save a farthing in the pound on the income tax, was too predominant in the Cabinet: but I can declare of my own knowledge, that since the Code came into operation, the principle of paying for results, as it has been applied by the inspectors, has greatly raised the character of the ordinary work of the schools; having compelled the teachers to abandon the practice prevalent in all schools from Eton downwards, of urging the clever children forward, and leaving the dunces to take their chance; and having substituted the more wholesome practice of striving to bring all the children up to the level at which they earn the Government allowance.

While the inspectors constitute the regulating power of the machine, the trained teachers, old and young, are the moving force, without which regulation would be vain. Mr. Acland in recent speech, related that he was present in 1840 at the founding of the Diocesan Training School at Birmingham, now under Mr. Gover, and one of the most successful in the kingdom. It is since the masters and mistresses trained in such institutions† have taken the

* See "Report of Commission on Popular Education," 1861, i, 20.

† Ibid., 22.

management of schools, aided by the systematised labour of pupil teachers,* that instruction has been effectively given. Teaching the working classes has become a profession, the members of which have been regularly apprenticed; and understand their art far better than the teaching of higher schools is understood by young university men, who have knowledge, but are ignorant of the right mode of communicating it.

Expenditure.—The Privy Council Committee of Education, is a most effective instrument. It is also remarkably economical. The following are the sums granted or actually spent:—

	Parliamentary Grants.*	Actual Expenditure.†
	£	£
1839.....	30,000	—
1840	30,000	—
'41	40,000	—
'42	same	—
'43	50,000	—
'44	40,000	—
'45	75,000	—
'46	100,000	—
'47	100,000	—
'48	125,000	83,406
'49	same	109,948
1850	125,000	180,110
'51	150,000	164,312
'52	160,000	188,856
'53	260,000	250,659
'54	263,000	326,436
'55	396,921	369,602
'56	451,213	423,633
'57	541,233	559,974
'58	663,435	668,873
'59	836,920	723,115
1860	798,167	724,403
'61	—	813,442
'62	—	774,743
'63 (under the revised code)	—	{ 721,386
'64	—	
'65	—	
		636,806

* See "Report of Commission on Popular Education," 1861, i, 20.

† "Statistical Abstract," x, 86, xii, 98, and xiii, 110.

It will be seen that the grant, beginning with 30,000*l.* in 1839, increased gradually to more than three quarters of a million, but has again diminished since the Revised Code has come into operation.

* See "Report of Commission on Popular Education." 1861, i, 21.

The work done for the money is partly shown in the following table:—*

Primary Schools, England, Wales, and Scotland.

Years ending 31st August.	Number of Schools Inspected.	Number of Children who can be Accommodated.	Average in Attendance.	Number Present at Inspection.
1854	3,825	588,073	461,445	473,214
'55	4,800	811,794	537,585	569,076
'56	5,179	877,762	571,239	645,905
'57	5,398	954,571	626,696	700,872
'58	6,641	1,155,964	761,027	821,744
'59	6,586	1,209,041	801,401	880,131
1860	7,272	1,320,248	884,234	962,932
'61	7,705	1,396,483	919,935	1,028,690
'62	7,569	1,476,240	964,849	1,057,426
'63	7,739	1,512,782	1,008,925	1,092,741
'64	7,891	1,521,457	1,011,134	1,133,291
'65	8,438	1,677,808	1,057,745	1,246,055

It appears from these two tables, that about 1,250,000 children are under the direct influence of the Privy Council and their inspectors; at a cost of about 12s. a-head, including the annual charge for building.

Our Government outlay of three-quarters of a million, is very small when compared with that of one other country. We have seen that in the United States, a dollar a-head of population is expended on 18½ millions of free people; at which rate we ought to spend eight times our three-quarters of a million. The French expenditure from 1837 to 1855 will be found from Mr. Arnold's report,† to amount, after deducting pupils' fees, to nearly a million sterling. M. Dupont White‡ gives about the same sum for 1857. Population for population England and France spend about the same. The expenses in Prussia I have not seen stated, but no doubt they are small: for as Mr. Grant Duff tells us,§ poverty is the difficulty met with at every turn in dealing with Prussian affairs; a poverty which is, in part, justly attributed by the Germans to the Thirty Years' War of two centuries ago, from which Germany is only just recovering.

When I blame the parsimony of our administration, I do not mean to say that a larger outlay would necessarily cause a proportionate improvement: I know that it is easy to spend money without any good result following. The principle however, on which Govern-

* "Statistical Abstract," vol. xiii, p. 109.

† "Education Commission," 1861, iv, 116 and 59.

‡ "La Centralisation," 1861, p. 51, note.

§ "Studies in European Politics," 243.

ment assistance is granted, has hitherto been open to the objection that it refuses help to those who most want it. The Privy Council scheme has supplemented, but has not originated: it has helped those who help themselves; but has nothing for those who are too poor or too indifferent to make the first move. Now there exists a large lowest class, who are themselves uninstructed, who are miserably poor, and to whom therefore, their children's education is a superfluity which they dispense with. The late Mr. Brotherton, whose recent death is an irreparable loss to his own neighbourhood, read a paper at Sheffield in 1865, in which he showed that the requirement of pupils' pence is in many cases an insuperable obstacle. I presume that his zeal outran the facts of the case: for I can hardly believe his statement,* that among one-fourth of the Manchester labouring classes, the entire weekly earnings of each family scarcely amount to 2s. a-head; so that a man and his wife with four children would have only 12s. a-week to live upon, or a similar family with three children, only 10s. Two inquiries however, from house to house, made by the Manchester Statistical Society,† exhibit a state of things not much better than this. Among the 1,054 families visited in 1863-64, nearly half had incomes as low as 8s. to 13s. 5d. per family; among the 789 families visited in 1864-65, a third had incomes as low as this: but these investigations only apply to small districts. In Liverpool again, the committee of inquiry into the causes of the high mortality prevalent, report that there are in that town multitudes of porters and dock labourers who earn only 2s. a-day; and we know from other sources that the absence of manufactures deprives these persons of the opportunity of sending their children to work. Among these miserably paid people, where are the means of paying school-pence? Mr. Brotherton and his friends established a society for the express purpose of paying the school-fees for the destitute: would it not be well to make a legal provision for such payment? Many benevolent persons are crying out for compulsory education: but a free education must in some cases accompany this; since a man could not be fined for keeping his children at home, so long as he could plead inability to pay school-pence: it would be a public scandal to punish a man for poverty. We must make up our minds then, to a larger public expenditure, either from general or local taxation.

Half-time.—Another considerable instrument is the half-time system.

A reader who only ran his eye down the columns of my tables, might think this half-time practice a failure, when he found that in Lancashire, so lately as 1863, only half the women signed their names, while in the agricultural south-eastern counties, four-fifths of

* "Social Science Transactions," 1865, p. 335.

† "Transactions," 1864 and 1865.

the women signed their names. If however, he compares the improvement which has taken place in towns under and not under the Factory Act, he may see reason to change his opinion.

Improvement in the Eighteen Years between 1846 and 1864.

Towns under the Factory Act.	Women.	Men and Women.	Towns <i>not</i> under the Factory Act.	Women.	Men and Women.
Coventry	5	4	London	6	4
Preston	12	10	Liverpool	8	5
Manchester	17	14	Birmingham	12	8
Macclesfield	20	16	Nottingham	14	9
Blackburn	16	18	Sheffield	11	9
Bradford	23	22	Leicester	12	11
Oldham	24	26	Wolverhampton ...	21	19
Average	17	16	Average	12	9

Against this it may be urged that the improvement has taken place generally, in the towns which started from the lowest level, whether under or not under the Act.

What the half-time system really is, may be found in the essays read during the Educational Conference in London, in 1857, p. 274. Mr. Redgrave, Inspector, says:—

“The half-time system may be concisely described as follows:—

“Daily attendance at school, combined with daily employment for half-time.

“Daily pecuniary responsibility of the employer, and of the parent, for the regularity of the school attendance of each child.

“The system is carried into effect in practice, by means of the following regulations:—

“Every child between 8 and 13 years of age must pass three hours in school on each of five days in every week during which it is employed. Such three hours to be between 8 A.M. and 6 P.M.

“The mill-owner must every week procure certificates, proving that the proper number of hours have been passed in school by each child during the previous week, and no child can be legally employed during the succeeding week who has been absent from school without cause even for one day.

“The labour of the children cannot exceed seven hours per day; it must be taken between 6 A.M. and 6 P.M., and the whole of the daily labour must be commenced and completed either before 1 P.M. or after 12 at noon.

“If the hours at work in a factory are reduced to ten hours per day, the attendance at school may be on alternate days; the children are then employed for the *whole* of one day, going to

“ school for at least five hours on the succeeding day ; their employment at all in any factory on their school days being illegal.”

The evidence as to the efficiency of the system, has varied from time to time. In 1839, three years after the educational clauses were really* carried into operation, it was stated that good effects were already perceptible : that by the testimony of the mill-owners, their overlookers, and the parents, “ the scholars became more tractable and better behaved, while their moral habits were improved.” On the other hand, a difficulty was mentioned by Mr. Horner, “ When the number of children is sufficient to provide by a moderate school-fee for the adequate remuneration of a good teacher, and when the mill-owner takes an interest in their education, schools will generally be established on the premises ; and this has already been done in many instances, and at the sole expense of the owner. But where the number is small, the education must be had out of the factory ; and here lies the difficulty of executing the Act, which requires the education to be given, but does not provide suitable schools where none exist. The clause inserted for that purpose supplies no funds for their establishment, and however willing the parents may be to pay the weekly charge for their children’s education, they are unable to unite to build and furnish a school.”

Remembering that the Factory Acts were passed in despite of the masters, and were even regarded by them as measures forced upon them in a hostile spirit by the landed interest in Parliament, I do not wonder that difficulties were found.

Mr. Edwin Chadwick, the author of the “ half school-time provision,”† as he calls it,‡ wrote as follows seven years ago,§ “ The three hours’ compulsory attendance at school, even where the teaching is inferior or nominal, has been successful as a preventive of bodily overwork ; the effect has been an improved physical growth, as medical officers attest, and also an improved quality of labour during the reduced hours,—as employers admit. But the securities for the competency of the school-teaching and the rating clauses having been thrown out in the House of Lords, the education given has been extensively nominal and illusory, and often fraudulent. From officers who have seen only the failures, the majority of cases, you will get testimony that the half school-time is an utter failure. There is also a body of one-sided testimony which entirely overlooks the half school-time provision as a security against overwork and bodily deterioration.”

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. ii, p. 176.

† “ Education Commission, Letter by Mr. Chadwick,” 1861 (249) p. 8.

‡ Not half work-time, as is generally supposed.

§ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

In 1857,* Mr. Redgrave, one of the inspectors, had given such an unfavourable opinion as Mr. Chadwick alluded to. “The half-time system of education possesses in the abstract all the elements of success; but in practice it has entirely failed. It has not been the means of extending the duration of school attendance, and it has driven from labour a vast number of children who have been deprived both of labour and of education. The half-time system supposed that children would remain at school from the age of 8 years to the age of 13; and if that anticipation had been realised, the half-time system would have been a great success; but in fact the *average* length of time during which half-time children attend school is less than the general average of schools under inspection.”

The children brought up under this system up to 1857, were those who appear as marrying in the last period of my tables; and as I have already shown, the improvement which took place in the Lancashire and Cheshire towns, indicated that the half-time system had not proved a failure; and the current of opinion at present, runs decidedly in its favour. I suspect that there was a little prejudice in the condemnation I have quoted; and that there was a foregone conclusion caused by preconceived opinions: for Mr. Redgrave declared himself against State interference; pronouncing it futile to work out a scheme on paper, “without first obtaining the concurrence of employers,” and pointing out the “extreme difficulty of interfering between the employer and the employed in any manner which imposes restrictions obnoxious to the one or to the other.”

At any rate, the present education under this system is admitted to be greatly improved, as we learn from Mr. Tremenheere;† who, after mentioning the late Mr. Senior’s desire to see an alteration in the schools, says:—

“In the case of the factory schools attended by the half-time children, there was great cause for the conclusion arrived at by Mr. Senior, from the evidence before him at that time, that the education received by the half-time children was very defective; and he accordingly proposed a means of making it effectual. But since the period to which that evidence refers there has been, as I have been informed by both the inspectors of factories, *Mr. Redgrave* and Mr. Baker, a very great improvement; and so much have the schools in general improved, and so ready are the manufacturers to send the half-time children to the best in their neighbourhood, that the factory inspectors are satisfied with the law as it is. All the badly furnished and ill-taught schools are said by them to be fast disappearing, and they believe that in a short time

* “Educational Essays,” 1857 (Longmans), 219.

† “Social Science Transactions,” 1865, p. 291.

“half-timers will be found attending none but the best local
“schools.”

Two beneficial and highly important changes then, have taken place during the last thirty years: first in order of time, the limitation of work, and the requirements of instruction, under the Factory Acts; a system forced on the manufacturers at first, but now generally approved; a system therefore, which has only by degrees assumed its due efficiency: secondly, the Government assistance rendered through the Committee of the Privy Council; a scheme which after many experiments, and at the expense, I fear, of some injustice, has settled down into the means of teaching the elements of knowledge at little cost, and with an efficiency before unknown. We may say truly that during the last generation a vast amount of work has been done.

XVIII.—*Prospects for the Future.*

In estimating our grounds of hope for the future, we must be guided by our knowledge of past and present progress. At p. 92 I have given a table of each year's signatures; and it appears that from 1839 to 1864 the septennial progress was at first 2 signatures, then 3, and of late 6. But my table is founded on the marriages; and the persons married in 1864, generally left school between 1850 and 1855: the table therefore, shows the state of instruction before 1855. Now, both the instruments previously mentioned; I mean the half school-time system, and the Privy Council system; have come into satisfactory working since 1855: the number of children under government inspection has increased since 1854, from half a million to a million and a quarter. I infer that during the last twelve years, elementary education has made great progress; and that probably therefore, the next seven or ten years will show a continued advance in the number of marriage signatures. The 72 signatures may, I hope, rise to 80.

After this point is gained, may we expect to go further, or must we stop at 80? I believe there is hope that we may go further. It is true that every step we take makes the next step more difficult, because we have less material to work upon. In 1,000 marriages, *marks* were made—

	Men.	Women.	
In 1839 by	340	500	
„ '64 „	230	320	

Thus, instead of having a third of the men to work upon, we have less than a fourth; and instead of half the women, only a third. On the other hand, education having once got a footing in a class, it

tends to propagate itself: parents who can read and write, desire the same advantages for their offspring: it is the ignorant who keep their children away from school, or send them irregularly, or shift them capriciously from school to school. I am able to say that in Birmingham there has been in these respects a great improvement. About ten years ago I first paid attention to this subject: at that time the managers of public schools complained of the irregularity of attendance and constant change of pupils: their complaints are now mitigated: the public schools too, are far better filled, and the difficulty is rather to find accommodation than to bring pupils in. I am speaking of the respectable artisans and not of that lowest class which is still the opprobrium of our great towns. That which is true of one town is, I hope, more or less true of others; that education is propagating itself, through a higher appreciation of it on the part of parents.

Then there are increased motives for desiring to read with facility: there are the penny London and local papers, which contain a great deal that is interesting to all classes, and which are constantly testing men's power of reading, and shaming those young men who do not possess it. The Free Libraries also, which are greatly frequented, keep up in towns the habit of reading when once acquired.

While the motives to seek education, and the actual desire for it, have thus advanced, the means of supplying it are being enlarged. The half school-time system has lately been extended to the Potteries: but for the change of ministry last year, it was to have reached the hardware towns; and I hope that before long it will be imposed on all towns, and in some form, perhaps that of alternate days, on the rural districts. The system was ill received thirty years ago, and therefore for a time was less efficient than it should have been: it will be submitted to now, at any rate in the large towns, with resignation, and in many cases with cheerfulness.*

The Privy Council intervention also, is still advancing in usefulness. I have already shown, p. 115, that the number of children under inspection had doubled in ten years, and was steadily increasing up to 1865: new schools are rising; and the dissenters, who long resisted all State interference, are now generally consenting to receive it. Neither do we yet feel the full effects of the Revised Code, the most valuable characteristic of which is that it secures the instruction of the many and ordinary children. I do not say that it might not do more for the higher classes of the schools, but I am

* Two attempts made in Birmingham to organise an opposition, failed ignominiously: this was owing very much to the well-considered support rendered by the "Daily Post;" which instead of lazily writing sensational articles, gave carefully selected extracts from evidence published by the Royal Commission. Sheffield is less willing to have a half school-time act, but it does not object to interference for sanitary purposes.

sure that in dealing with the many, it does the most important work. I believe that the Privy Council work is advancing.

Compulsory Education.—A desire is gathering for compulsory education, and I find a growing conviction that in the end we shall have to resort to it. It seems to me that the time is not come either for adopting it, or for forming an opinion upon the necessity of it. Those who declare themselves in its favour, have rather a general impression than a conviction founded on a knowledge of facts: perhaps when they know what has been done and what is still doing, they will be content to wait.

We already practise compulsion when we enforce the half school-time clauses of the Factory Act. We shall practise it much more widely if the principles of the Act are extended to the hardware towns, to London and other non-manufacturing towns, and to the agricultural districts.

It is alleged indeed, that this compulsion fails to reach a large class of children who are in fact neither at school nor at work. Thus, an investigation made in Birmingham in 1856,* showed that out of 1,373 children, of 7 to 13 years old, selected from fourteen different parishes, 42 per cent. were at school, 33 per cent. at work, and 25 per cent. were neither at school nor at work. But from this 25 per cent., there must be deducted the girls and even some of the boys, who were helping their mother in the house; a most legitimate work in my opinion. Of the boys only 20 per cent. were neither at school nor at work; and from these must be deducted the sick, the convalescent, and those who were in daily expectation of going to either work or school. The remainder is not formidable. An investigation made since this paper was in the press, shows that the 42 per cent. at school in 1857, has risen to 45 per cent. It has been proved also, that the greater excellence of the instruction now given, has in some cases shortened the years spent at school, and therefore, has lessened the numbers at school.

A recent inquiry in Manchester has, no doubt, disclosed a worse state of affairs: it has been recently found in a district in Ancoats,† that of 473 children between 6 and 12 years old, 40 per cent. of the boys, and 53 per cent. of the girls, were neither at work, nor at school; and that from 6 to 9 years old, half the boys were in this state of idleness. It is from Manchester that the cry for compulsory education has come; and I cannot wonder at it: but before the whole country is asked to join in the demand, it should be ascertained whether the Manchester case is peculiar, or is a fair example for the rest of the country. If it is peculiar, then a local bill is what is wanted. The opinion that there is something peculiar in

* "Birmingham Educational Association, Statistics," 1857. (Simpkin & Co.)

† Manchester Statistical Society, 15th November, 1865, p. 13.

the condition of Manchester, is confirmed by what I have heard from a manufacturer unfavourable to the extension of the Factory Acts; who is convinced that that Act has caused the Manchester people to avoid employing young children, though such is not the case in other textile towns: a distinction, if it really exists, which accounts for the comparatively large number of Manchester children unemployed. In the meantime we have to see whether the recent Industrial Schools Bill, together with an extension of the Factory Acts, will enable the hardware and other towns to deal with the reckless portion of their population.

I am convinced that before we can induce Parliament to revolutionize education by a general compulsory Act, we must exhaust every other means: for it is always unwillingly that the English submit to forcible interference. There are also peculiar difficulties in this case. I imagine to myself a father brought up before the Petty Sessions, charged with omitting to send his son to school: the delinquent replies that he has not enough wages to furnish the necessary food and clothes for his family, and that he cannot pay the school-pence. Why then, is not the boy at work, and receiving the half-time instruction? Because the father is unable to find an employer at present. To punish such a man would be impossible.

If we are to have compulsory education, we must have the United States' free education. Let us look at the cost. I have shown that in America, among $18\frac{1}{2}$ millions of the people, the State cost per head of population is a gold dollar, besides what is paid by the towns: in this proportion our 28 millions would cost six millions £; and the States' school-houses are cheap, and their teachers' salaries are low. But we might spend a great deal more than six million £. Zealous persons regard as of school age, all children from 3 to 13: making deductions for affluent families, and delicate children, we might have five millions children to educate. After school-rooms are built and supplied, the annual expense of really good schools is 2*l.* for each pupil; and for infants and half-timers we may say half as much. Here would be a cost of seven or eight millions sterling. Does any one suppose that the Chancellor of the Exchequer will propose a vote of five, six, or seven millions, to do by unpopular compulsion, what we are in a way to do by voluntary effort? Some persons will say that local rates may be applied to this purpose; but it really makes little difference in the weight of the burden whether the money is to come out of the general purse or the local purse. At present indeed, to get the money from the local purse would be the more difficult, because the town rates are already oppressively high, being in some great towns for poor rate, borough rates, and share of county rates, together 7*s.* in the pound, to which we could scarcely add the necessary addition for free education,

of 1s. to 2s. in the pound. The case is quite different in America, where a fixed proportion of the proceeds of the land sales is invested, and the income is applied to education.

Again, does any one suppose that the clergy of all denominations will be content to surrender to State officers, that influence over the young, which at present is exercised by themselves? Would the laity even think it desirable that such a transfer should be made? and that five millions of our children should all be trained and pruned to one pattern, instead of, as at present, being subject to those various influences which give variety and real freedom to the national life? There is but one plea that can justify such a revolution; the plea that all voluntary means have failed: at present this plea cannot be urged, since, as I have shown, judging by results, great progress has been made, and is still making; and since also the number of children under Government inspection is annually increasing, and the half school-time system is capable of vast extension.

I know that there still remains the case of the very lowest class of children, who run half naked about the back streets of great towns. The Industrial Schools Act is an attempt to deal with the difficulty: it proposes to carry off, to feed, and educate, these neglected children. The expense will render it impossible to carry out the scheme very widely: some guardians also fear that like the establishment of foundling hospitals, it will foster improvidence, and wilful neglect, on the part of parents.

Might not a less expensive remedy be tried? Guardians already possess a power to intervene: they cannot indeed insist, as to persons receiving out-door relief, that their children shall go to school; but they can legally pay the school-pence for the parents. This power, as I know, is actually exercised; but the cases are few, because most parents who require permanent relief are required to go into the house. Suppose however, that guardians were authorized to pay the school-pence in all cases where parents could not afford to do so: then, no parent would have an excuse for keeping children neither at work nor at school.

The expense would not be intolerable. The school charge varies from 2*d.* to 4*d.* a-week; rising in a few cases to 6*d.* Few children of this class would attend, under the most rigorous compulsion, more than forty weeks a-year; so that 10s. a-year would be the most the

* The following is a curious example of a possible result of Governmental teaching:—

“ Les journaux prussiens se sont beaucoup moqués dernièrement de certain “ manuel d'histoire à l'usage des écoles primaires ou se lisent des réponses comme “ celle-ci: ‘ Quel est le centre de l'Europe? L'Allemagne: Quel est le centre “ “ de l'Allemagne? La Saxe. Quel est le cœur de la Saxe? Dresde.’ ” *Revue des deux Mondes*, 15 Decembre, 1866, p. 882.

authorities would have to pay. In towns a penny rate would probably be the extent of the expense.

It would be still better, I believe, if in boroughs, the town councils were substituted for the guardians; because the rate would then be levied on the whole of the town, instead of being confined to the parish or other poor-law district. In order to meet any difficulty as to providing additional schools, I would give the town councils a second penny rate, for the purpose of subsidising schools, both as to the building and the current expenses. I am convinced that this would supply schools better and more cheaply than if the council built and managed them.

Having thus provided school-house and schools, I would extend the provisions of the Industrial Schools Act: I would make it a misdemeanour for parents to let their children run wild about the streets, neither at work nor at school. After the Factory Act was generally introduced, we should then have in theory all children of school age under instruction, since those not at work would be at school, or taught at home, and those at work would be taught half their time.

NOTE by MR. J. T. HAMMICK of the General Register Office,
Somerset House, W.C.

There are in the General Register Office *five hundred and sixty-five* volumes, containing marriages amongst the Society of Friends since the passing of the Marriage Act of Lord Hardwicke (25th March, 1754).

The Friends always required the parties married to sign the entry. I have examined volumes (relating to the three periods specified in Mr. Sargent's letter) from the northern, south-eastern, south-western, and midland counties, and I have not found a single entry signed by mark. The handwritings, which are of course very various as to merit, cannot, I think, be said to be better on the whole during the second or third period than during the first.

We have *one hundred and fifty* volumes containing Quakers' marriages which refer to dates prior to 1754. These volumes date back to the foundation of the society in the middle of the seventeenth century, and are of the same general character as those above referred to.

Total number of marriage registers from the Friends, *seven hundred and fifteen.*

We have *thirty-five* volumes containing entries of marriages since 1754 from the Roman Catholics. These are mere memoranda made by the priests of the *duplicate* ceremony as performed according to the rites of the Romish Church. They do not contain the signatures of the parties married.

We have also three or four volumes containing a few entries of a similar nature from other denominations.

The non-parochial marriage registers (besides those of the Friends), which refer to dates prior to 1754, are as follows:—

Sixty-four volumes from foreign churches. These consist for the most part of books of Protestant refugees in London and other towns. They date back to the close of the sixteenth century. The marriage entries are generally signed by the parties married. The number signed by mark is not large.

Four volumes from Independent Chapels. One of these only contains the original signatures of the persons married. This book is from Rowell, Northampton. It dates from 1692 to 1699.

Two volumes from Baptist Chapels. Neither of these contains signatures of persons married.

One volume from a Moravian Church. The entries are full and detailed, but there are no signatures of the married couples.

Three volumes from Presbyterian Chapels. No signatures.

One volume from Greenwich Hospital Chapel, one from Chelsea Hospital Chapel, and one from Mercers' Hall Chapel. Neither of these contains the signatures of the persons married.

Total number of non-parochial registers of marriages prior to 1754:—

Friends	150
Other denominations	77
	<hr/>
	227
	<hr/>

J. T. H.

APPENDIX.

TABLE O.—*Number of MARKS made in Signing Marriage Registers.*

Name of Parish Church.	Name of County.	Years between 1754 and 1762.			Years between 1799 and 1804.			Years between 1831 and 1837.		
		Number of Mar- riages.	Number of Marks.		Number of Mar- riages.	Number of Marks.		Number of Mar- riages.	Number of Marks.	
			Men.	Women.		Men.	Women.		Men.	Women.
I.—Country	Parishes.									
East Acklam	York	20	4	11	18	7	11	29	12	15
South Kileworth	Leicester	18	4	9	17	8	13	29	4	9
Ushall	Stafford	27	16	12	59	31	43	71	44	50
Warborne	„	161	84	117	168	58	92	311	48	99
Wandsworth	„	91	46	62	695	232	403	1,099	409	621
Woneleigh	Warwick	108	57	78	46	24	34	40	20	18
Whitacre In- ferior	„	17	5	13	11	2	2	16	6	7
Wishow	„	—	No return		4	—	4	7	4	3
Wislingbury	Northampton	—	„	—	20	8	14	29	8	13
Wittle Houghton	„	20	9	7	18	6	12	36	14	15
Wistle Ashby	„	11	4	5	9	2	4	14	2	1
Woburn	„	—	No return		25	10	15	47	13	28
Worleston	„	43	19	30	30	16	20	34	13	18
Wreat Houghton	„	12	5	6	8	2	6	16	6	9
Wallington	„	—	No return		15	4	5	26	18	18
Wilton	Huntingdon	32	12	18	39	16	28	33	16	17
Wulbourn	Cambridge ...	28	10	25	19	11	15	21	13	12
Wolverley	Worcester ...	42	15	17	30	18	21	44	17	20
Wings Norton	„	174	95	137	53	14	24	98	34	45
Worsington	Oxford	30	11	21	19	3	6	32	14	17
Wroodwater	Sussex	36	16	20	49	17	24	197	39	48
Wapleaton	Gloucester ...	86	54	64	47	18	27	97	34	61
Watcomb	Somerset	3	2	3	5	1	1	5	4	5
Wavedon	„	11	5	10	12	6	8	21	2	5
Wareham	Dorset	—	No return		86	17	36	127	36	49
Wreat Billing	—	6	—	2	—	No return		22	12	18
		976	473 48%	667 68%	1,502	531 35%	868 58%	2,501	842 34%	1,221 49%
			58%			46½%			41½%	

TABLE O.—*Number of MARKS made in Signing Marriage Registers—Contd.*

Name of Parish Church.	Name of County.	Years between 1754 and 1762.			Years between 1799 and 1804.			Years between 1831 and 1837.		
		Number of Mar- riages.	Number of Marks.		Number of Mar- riages.	Number of Marks.		Number of Mar- riages.	Number of Marks.	
			Men.	Women.		Men.	Women.		Men.	Women.
II.— <i>Town Parishes.</i>										
Halifax*	—	190	75	146	250	91	174	740	460	670
St. Mary's, town of Nottingham		734	233	448	1,529	508	1,058	2,046	441	997
All Saints	„ { North- ampton }	245	58	39	240	55	121	504	128	206
St. Peter	„ „	15	4	7	24	11	15	69	19	39
St. Ebbe	„ Oxford.....	32	10	11	128	31	53	228	53	85
St. Aldate	„ „	70	23	32	96	21	31	212	37	65
St. Martin	„ „	54	8	20	27	6	6	18	—	1
St. Nicholas } Chapel }	„ King's Lynn	320	125	192	294	98	173	346	130	179
St. Margaret	„ „	215	80	130	318	104	149	409	98	190
St. John } Baptist }	„ Bristol.....	88	30	56	130	40	66	435	97	196
		1,963	646 33%	1,081 55%	3,036	965 32%	1,846 62%	5,007	1,463 29%	2,628 53%
			44%			47%			41%	

* Halifax has greatly improved of late: in 1865 out of 871 marriages, only 171 men and 355 women used marks; *i.e.* 80 per cent. of men and 60 per cent. of women could write.

TABLE P.—“COMMON SCHOOLS” in *Eighteen of the United States: Sums Furnished by State Taxation and by Interest on Share of Land Sales.*

National Almanac, Page	States of	Population, 1860.	Total Sums in	Per Head of Population in	Per Head of Population in	Order of Merit.
			\$	\$	s. d.	
491	Illinois.....	1,711,951	2,705,052	1.58	6 7	1
373	Massachusetts....	1,231,066	1,612,823	1.30	5 5	2
518	California.....	379,994	470,113	1.24	5 2	3
470	Ohio.....	2,339,050	2,834,066	1.21	5 —½	4
343	Maine	628,276	742,952	1.18	4 11	5
506	Wisconsin	775,881	854,766	1.10	4 7	6
480	Michigan	749,113	795,140	1.06	4 5	7
390	Connecticut	460,147	486,005	1.06	4 5	8
499	Iowa.....	674,498	706,374	1.05	4 4½	9
438	Pennsylvania	2,906,115	2,900,501	1.	4 2	10
384	Rhode Island ...	174,620	164,239	.94	3 11	11
352	New Hampshire	326,073	274,623	.84	3 6	12
453	Maryland.....	687,049	564,891	.82	3 5	13
422	New Jersey	672,035	540,283	.80	3 4	14
448	Delaware	112,216	86,850	.78	3 3	15
359	Vermont	315,116	222,483	.70	2 11	16
411	New York	3,851,563	{ 2,500,000 about }	.65	2 8½	17
462	Kentucky..... {	1,155,684 incl. slaves.	{ 361,520 }	.31	1 3½	18
		19,150,447	18,822,681	Average .98	4 1	

BLE Q.—Number of MARKS Made in Signing Marriage Registers, in the Years ending Midsummer 1840, Christmas 1851 and Christmas 1863; according to the "Registrar-General's Reports," iii, pp. 22, &c., xiv, pp. 2, &c., xxvi, pp. 2, &c.

England and Wales by DIVISIONS, and Scotland.

Years.	Number of Marriages.		Number of Marks.		Number of Marks to 100 Marriages.			Diminution of Marks in each Period of 12 Years.			Diminution of Marks during 23½ Years.		
			Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women.
40	124,329	{ England and Wales	41,812	62,523	34	50	42	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	154,206	"	47,439	69,812	31	45	38	3	5	4	—	—	—
63	173,510	"	41,262	57,416	24	33	28½	7	12	9½	10	17	13½
40	—	Scotland.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	—	"	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
62	20,597	"	2,062	4,192	10	20	15	—	—	—	—	—	—
40	18,648	London	2,253	4,633	12	25	18½	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	26,084	"	3,384	6,039	13	23	18	—1	+2	+½	—	—	—
63	29,963	"	3,308	5,392	11	18	14½	2	5	3½	1	7	4
40	10,018	South Eastern	3,233	4,091	33	41	37	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	11,537	"	3,457	3,749	30	33	31½	3	8	5½	—	—	—
63	14,524	"	3,184	2,807	22	19	20½	8	14	11	11	22	16½
40	8,128	South Midland	3,539	4,382	44	54	49	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	8,455	"	3,418	3,871	40	46	43	4	8	6	—	—	—
63	9,052	"	2,772	2,809	31	31	31	9	15	12	13	23	18
40	7,227	Eastern	3,447	3,893	48	54	51	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	7,539	"	3,245	3,389	43	45	44	5	9	7	—	—	—
63	7,873	"	2,646	2,281	33	29	31	10	16	13	15	25	20
40	12,220	South Western ...	4,196	5,910	34	48	41	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	13,511	"	4,558	5,733	34	42	38	—	6	3	—	—	—
63	13,816	"	3,549	3,916	25	28	26½	9	14	11½	9	20	14½
40	15,334	West Midland*....	5,934	8,251	39	54	46½	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	18,828	"	6,892	9,078	37	48	42½	2	6	4	—	—	—
63	21,233	"	6,481	7,888	31	37	34	6	11	8½	8	17	12½
40	8,357	North Midland	2,781	4,238	33	51	42	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	9,787	"	2,865	4,197	29	43	36	4	8	6	—	—	—
63	10,036	"	2,454	3,206	24	32	28	5	11	8	9	19	14
40	17,565	North Western....	6,798	11,505	39	66	52½	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	24,877	"	8,729	15,443	35	62	48½	4	4	4	—	—	—
63	27,701	"	6,907	13,069	25	47	36	10	15	12½	14	19	16½
40	12,621	York	4,439	7,460	35	60	47½	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	16,982	"	5,087	9,190	30	54	42	5	6	5½	—	—	—
63	18,505	"	4,041	7,185	22	39	30½	8	15	11½	13	21	17
40	6,321	Northern	1,397	2,704	22	43	32½	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	7,411	"	1,691	3,088	23	42	32½	—1	1	—	—	—	—
63	10,237	"	2,096	3,421	20	33	26½	3	9	6	2	10	6
40	7,890	Welsh†	3,795	5,456	48	69	58½	—	—	—	—	—	—
51	9,195	"	4,113	6,035	45	65	55	3	4	3½	—	—	—
63	10,570	"	3,824	5,442	36	52	44	9	13	11	12	17	14½

* "West Midland" was formerly called Western, but consisted of the same counties.

† "Welsh" formerly included Monmouthshire: making some difference in the number of marriages, but scarcely any proportionate number of marks.

TABLE R.—*Number of MARKS Made in Signing Marriage Registers, in the Years ending Midsummer 1840, Christmas 1851 and Christmas 1863; according to the "Registrar General's Reports," iii, pp. 22, &c., xiv, pp. 2, &c., xxvi, pp. 2, &c.*

England by COUNTIES.

Years.	Number of Marriages.		Number of Marks.		Number of Marks to 100 Marriages.			Diminution of Marks in each Period of 12 Years.			Diminution of Marks during 23½ Years.		
			Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women	Men.	Women.	Men and Women	Men.	Women.	Men and Women
1840	124,329	{ England and }	41,812	62,523	34	50	42	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	154,206	Wales	47,439	69,812	31	45	38	3	5	4	—	—	—
'63	173,510	"	41,262	57,416	24	33	28½	7	12	9½	10	17	13½
1840	18,648	London	2,253	4,633	12	25	18½	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	26,084	"	3,384	6,039	13	23	18	—1	+2	½	—	—	—
'63	29,963	"	3,308	5,392	11	18	14½	2	5	3½	1	7	4
1840	944	Bedfordshire	510	638	54	68	61	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	953	"	456	563	48	59	53½	6	9	2½	—	—	—
'63	1,179	"	462	532	39	45	42	9	14	11½	15	23	19
1840	1,298	Berks	523	608	40	47	43½	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	1,336	"	495	466	37	35	36	3	12	7½	—	—	—
'63	1,524	"	469	377	31	25	28	6	10	8	9	22	15½
1840	979	Buckinghamshire	454	554	46	67	51½	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	942	"	403	474	43	50	46½	3	7	5	—	—	—
'63	1,039	"	344	384	33	37	35	10	13	11½	13	20	16½
1840	1,291	Cambridgeshire....	622	750	48	58	53	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	1,399	"	588	645	42	46	44	6	12	9	—	—	—
'63	1,292	"	443	415	34	32	33	8	14	11	14	26	20
1840	2,503	Cheshire	934	1,576	37	63	50	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	3,452	"	1,122	1,911	33	55	44	4	8	6	—	—	—
'63	3,782	"	940	1,568	25	41	33	8	14	11	12	22	17
1840	2,399	Cornwall	857	1,291	36	54	45	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	2,812	"	1,038	1,459	37	52	44½	—1	+2	½	—	—	—
'63	2,875	"	873	1,128	30	39	34½	7	13	10	6	15	10½
1840	1,044	Cumberland	167	396	16	38	27	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	1,025	"	167	313	16	31	23½	—	7	3½	—	—	—
'63	1,606	"	291	504	18	31	24½	—2	—	—1	—2	7	2½
1840	1,815	Derby.....	581	909	32	50	41	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	2,112	"	553	892	26	42	34	6	8	7	—	—	—
'63	2,411	"	565	806	23	34	28½	3	8	5½	9	16	12½
1840	4,030	Devon	1,117	1,700	28	42	35	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	4,551	"	1,197	1,650	26	36	31	2	6	4	—	—	—
'63	4,766	"	954	1,139	20	24	22	6	12	9	8	18	13
1840	1,187	Dorset	401	529	33	44	38½	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	1,317	"	474	499	36	38	37	—3	+6	1½	—	—	—
'63	1,376	"	374	341	27	24	25½	9	14	11½	6	20	13

TABLE R.—*Number of MARKS Made in Signing Marriage Registers—Contd.*

No.	Number of Marriages.		Number of Marks.		Number of Marks to 100 Marriages.			Diminution of Marks in each Period of 12 Years.			Diminution of Marks during 23½ Years.		
			Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women	Men.	Women.	Men and Women	Men.	Women.	Men and Women
40	2,751	Durham	742	1,341	27	49	38	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	3,620	„	975	1,748	27	49	38	—	—	—	—	—	—
83	4,889	„	1,182	1,858	24	38	31	3	11	7	3	11	7
40	2,083	Essex	1,046	1,169	50	56	53	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	2,068	„	916	932	44	45	44½	6	11	8½	—	—	—
83	2,391	„	736	618	31	26	28½	13	19	16	19	30	24½
40	3,419	Gloucestershire	1,029	1,512	30	44	37	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	3,778	„	1,080	1,412	29	37	32½	2	7	4½	—	—	—
83	4,073	„	884	964	22	42	23	6	13	9½	8	20	14
40	2,457	Hants	787	1,014	32	41	36½	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	3,068	„	831	1,033	27	34	30½	5	7	6	—	—	—
83	3,861	„	777	723	20	19	19½	7	15	11	12	22	17
40	577	Hereford	223	240	40	42	41	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	591	„	234	244	40	41	40½	—	1	½	—	—	—
83	705	„	272	203	38	28	33	2	13	7½	2	14	8
40	963	Hertfordshire	505	540	52	56	54	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	1,096	„	548	561	50	51	50½	2	5	3½	—	—	—
83	1,109	„	400	360	36	32	34	14	19	16½	16	24	20
40	446	Huntingdonshire	206	259	46	58	52	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	421	„	173	199	41	47	44	5	11	8	—	—	—
83	412	„	136	120	33	30	31½	8	17	12½	12	28	20½
40	3,184	{ Kent (extra metropolitan) }	926	1,264	29	40	34½	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	3,547	„	1,012	1,215	28	35	31½	1	5	3	—	—	—
83	4,381	„	972	907	22	21	21½	6	14	10	7	19	13
40	15,062	Lancashire	5,864	9,929	39	66	52½	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	21,425	„	7,607	13,532	35	63	49	4	3	3½	—	—	—
83	23,919	„	5,967	11,501	26	50	38	9	13	11	13	16	14½
40	1,727	Leicestershire	592	912	35	53	44	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	1,980	„	600	853	30	42	36	5	11	8	—	—	—
83	2,029	„	487	677	24	34	29	6	8	7	11	19	15
40	2,697	Lincolnshire	906	1,303	34	48	41	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	2,853	„	845	1,104	30	40	35	4	8	6	—	—	—
83	2,857	„	678	743	23	26	24½	7	14	10½	11	22	16½
40	680	{ Middlesex (ex. metropolitan) }	199	234	29	34	31½	—	—	—	—	—	—
61	851	„	230	255	27	30	28½	2	4	3	—	—	—
83	1,002	„	212	175	21	17	19	6	13	9½	8	17	12½

TABLE R.—*Number of MARKS Made in Signing Marriage Registers—Contd.*

Years.	Number of Marriages.		Number of Marks.		Number of Marks to 100 Marriages.			Diminution of Marks in each Period of 12 Years.			Diminution of Marks during 23½ Years.		
			Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women	Men.	Women.	Men and Women	Men.	Women.	Men and Women
1840	1,427	Monmouth	755	942	53	66	59½	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	1,473	„	719	900	48	60	54	5	6	5	—	—	—
'63	1,716	„	707	839	41	49	45	7	11	9	12	17	14½
1840	2,847	Norfolk	1,291	1,481	45	52	48½	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	3,177	„	1,338	1,397	42	44	43	3	8	5½	—	—	—
'63	3,052	„	1,036	958	34	32	33	8	12	10	11	20	15½
1840	1,660	Northamptonshire	613	876	37	53	45	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	1,541	„	563	688	37	45	41	—	8	4	—	—	—
'63	1,752	„	461	509	26	29	27½	11	16	13½	11	24	17½
1840	2,185	Northumberland	414	850	19	39	29	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	2,388	„	485	919	20	38	29	—1	1	—	—	—	—
'63	3,306	„	558	974	17	30	23½	3	8	5½	2	9	5½
1840	1,974	Nottinghamshire	661	1,063	33	53	43	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	2,664	„	807	1,291	30	49	39½	3	4	3½	—	—	—
'63	2,582	„	687	941	26	36	31	4	13	8½	7	17	12
1840	1,165	Oxfordshire	430	531	37	46	41½	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	1,252	„	457	486	37	39	38	—	7	3½	—	—	—
'63	1,267	„	314	314	25	25	25	12	14	13	12	21	16½
1840	144	Rutlandshire	41	51	28	35	31½	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	178	„	60	57	33	32	32½	—5	3	—1	—	—	—
'63	157	„	37	39	23	24	23½	10	8	9	5	11	8
1840	1,617	Salop	708	860	44	54	49	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	1,618	„	659	767	41	48	44½	3	6	4½	—	—	—
'63	1,868	„	594	666	32	36	34	9	12	10½	12	18	15
1840	3,028	Somersetshire	1,109	1,499	37	50	43½	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	3,193	„	1,159	1,360	36	42	39	1	8	4½	—	—	—
'63	3,207	„	901	874	28	27	27½	8	15	11½	9	23	16
1840	3,880	Staffordshire	1,666	2,379	43	61	52	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	5,990	„	2,681	3,616	45	60	52½	—2	1	—½	—	—	—
'63	7,219	„	2,842	3,594	40	50	45	5	10	7½	3	11	7
1840	2,297	Suffolk	1,110	1,243	48	54	51	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	2,294	„	991	1,060	43	46	44½	5	8	6½	—	—	—
'63	2,430	„	874	705	36	29	32½	7	17	12	12	25	18½
1840	1,068	{ Surrey (extra metropolitan) }	339	383	32	36	34	—	—	—	—	—	—
'51	1,153	„	399	334	35	29	32	—3	7	2	—	—	—
'63	1,835	„	376	322	21	18	19½	14	11	12½	11	18	14½

TABLE R.—Number of MARKS Made in Signing Marriage Registers—Contd.

rs.	Number of Marriages.		Number of Marks.		Number of Marks to 100 Marriages.			Diminution of Marks in each Period of 12 Years.			Diminution of Marks during 23½ Years.		
			Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women	Men.	Women.	Men and Women	Men.	Women.	Men and Women
0	2,011	Sussex	658	822	33	41	37	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	2,433	„	720	701	30	29	29½	3	12	7½	—	—	—
3	2,923	„	590	478	20	16	18	10	13	11½	13	25	19
0	2,923	Warwickshire	984	1,486	34	51	42½	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	4,576	„	1,429	1,957	31	43	37	3	8	5½	—	—	—
3	4,847	„	1,149	1,579	24	33	28½	7	10	8½	10	18	14
0	341	Westmoreland	74	117	21	34	27½	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	378	„	64	108	17	28	22½	4	6	5	—	—	—
3	436	„	65	85	15	19	17	2	9	5½	6	15	10½
0	1,576	Wilts	712	891	45	56	50½	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	1,638	„	690	765	43	47	45	2	9	5½	—	—	—
3	1,592	„	447	434	28	27	27½	15	20	17½	17	29	23
0	2,918	Worcestershire	1,324	1,774	46	61	53½	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	2,275	„	809	1,082	35	47	41	11	14	12½	—	—	—
3	2,521	„	740	882	30	35	32½	5	12	8½	16	26	21
0	2,239	{ Yorkshire, } East Riding and City	468	904	21	40	30½	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	2,604	„	552	1,019	21	39	30	—	1	½	—	—	—
3	2,615	„	432	733	17	28	22½	4	11	7½	4	12	8
0	1,364	{ Yorkshire, } North Riding	309	581	23	43	33	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	1,397	„	295	497	21	35	28	2	8	5	—	—	—
3	1,610	„	300	375	19	23	21	2	12	7	4	20	12
0	9,018	{ Yorkshire, } West Riding	3,662	5,975	41	66	53½	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	12,981	„	4,240	7,674	33	59	46	8	7	7½	—	—	—
3	14,280	„	3,309	6,077	23	42	32½	10	17	13½	18	24	21
0	2,561	North Wales	1,216	1,806	48	71	59½	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	2,765	„	1,212	1,832	44	66	55	4	5	4½	—	—	—
3	3,177	„	1,127	1,528	35	48	41½	9	18	13½	13	23	18
0	3,902	South Wales	1,824	2,708	46	70	58	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	4,957	„	2,182	3,303	44	67	55½	2	3	2½	—	—	—
3	5,677	„	1,990	3,075	35	55	45	9	12	10½	11	15	13

TABLE S.—*Number of MARKS Made in Signing Marriage Registers, in the Years ending Christmas 1846 and Christmas 1864; according to the “Registrar-General’s Reports,” ix, pp. 43, &c., and xxvii, pp. 6, &c.*

Some of the PRINCIPAL CITIES AND TOWNS of England.

Years.	Number of Marriages.		Number of Marks.		Number of Marks to 100 Marriages.			Diminution of Marks in 18 Years.		
			Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women.
1846	145,664	England and Wales ...	47,488	70,145	33	48	40½	—	—	—
'64	180,387	„ ...	41,997	58,402	23	32	27½	10	16	13
1846	22,272	London	2,581	5,046	12	23	17½	—	—	—
'64	31,541	„	3,450	5,494	11	17	14	1	6	3½
1846	583	Bath	119	164	20	28	24	—	—	—
'64	699	„	91	111	13	16	14½	7	12	9½
1846	1,623	Birmingham parish ...	464	756	29	47	38	—	—	—
'64	2,339	„ ...	600	829	26	35	30½	3	12	7½
1846	788	Blackburn district.....	392	638	50	80	65	—	—	—
'64	1,109	„	327	706	30	64	47	20	16	18
1846	940	Bolton district	490	770	52	81	66½	—	—	—
'64	1,164	„	353	672	30	58	44	22	23	22½
1846	1,409	Bradford district	571	1,076	40	76	58	—	—	—
'64	2,159	„	528	1,154	24	53	38½	16	23	19½
1846	491	Brighton	72	113	14	23	18½	—	—	—
'64	850	„	99	134	12	16	14	2	7	4½
1846	1,373	Bristol parish	339	553	24	40	32	—	—	—
'64	1,339	„	262	361	20	28	24	4	12	8
1846	391	Cheltenham district ...	64	89	16	22	19	—	—	—
'64	430	„ ...	51	58	12	14	13	4	8	6
1846	715	Chester district	164	290	23	41	32	—	—	—
'64	704	„	153	221	22	31	26½	1	10	5½
1846	383	Coventry	86	178	23	47	35	—	—	—
'64	426	„	89	176	20	42	31	3	5	4
1846	456	Derby	105	189	23	41	32	—	—	—
'64	639	„	113	185	18	29	23½	5	12	8½
1846	357	Gateshead	82	180	23	50	36½	—	—	—
'64	505	„	150	229	30	46	38	—7	4	—1½
1846	604	Hull	81	228	13	38	25½	—	—	—
'64	790	„	120	236	15	30	22	—2	8	3½
1846	1,850	Leeds and Hunslet ...	508	1,020	27	55	41	—	—	—
'64	1,958	„ only.....	427	778	22	40	31	5	15	10
1846	587	Leicester	165	273	28	46	37	—	—	—
'64	973	„	192	342	19	34	26½	9	12	10½

TABLE S.—*Number of MARKS Made in Signing Marriage Registers—Contd.*

Years.	Number of Marriages.		Number of Marks.		Number of Marks to 100 Marriages.			Diminution of Marks in 18 Years.		
			Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women.
46	3,912	Liverpool parish	1,023	1,937	26	49	37½	—	—	—
64	4,420	* „	1,096	1,822	25	41	33	1	8	4½
46	553	Macclesfield	178	350	32	64	48	—	—	—
64	497	„	102	218	20	44	32	12	20	16
46	5,194	Manchester	1,610	3,318	31	64	47½	—	—	—
64	4,304	* „	851	2,016	20	47	33½	11	17	14
46	98	Salford	13	42	13	43	28	—	—	—
64	714	„	179	394	25	55	40	—12	—12	—12
46	1,161	Newcastle-on-Tyne ...	226	499	19	43	31	—	—	—
64	1,835	„ ...	317	556	18	30	24	1	13	7
46	693	Norwich.....	198	293	28	42	35	—	—	—
64	749	„	145	197	19	26	22½	9	16	12½
46	642	Nottingham	157	309	24	48	36	—	—	—
64	913	„	181	306	20	34	27	4	14	9
46	1,208	Oldham (Ashton).....	655	1,017	54	84	69	—	—	—
64	843	„ (only)	216	505	26	60	43	28	24	26
46	521	Plymouth	94	187	18	36	27	—	—	—
64	786	„	156	239	20	30	25	—2	6	2
46	1,044	Portsmouth	222	418	21	40	30½	—	—	—
64	1,071	„	143	225	13	20	16½	8	20	14
46	794	Preston	354	591	44	74	59	—	—	—
64	925	„	335	576	36	62	49	8	12	10
46	1,296	Sheffield.....	437	690	34	53	43½	—	—	—
64	2,185	„	593	922	27	42	34½	7	11	9
46	367	Southampton.....	74	96	21	27	24	—	—	—
64	544	„	76	77	14	14	14	7	13	10
46	681	Stockport	230	443	33	65	49	—	—	—
64	900	„	266	497	30	55	42½	3	10	6½
46	722	Sunderland	151	333	21	46	33½	—	—	—
64	1,214	„	283	481	23	40	31½	—2	6	2
46	1,133	Wolverhampton	649	833	57	74	65½	—	—	—
64	1,215	„	497	648	41	53	47	16	21	18½
46	241	Yarmouth	76	110	30	45	37½	—	—	—
64	331	„	84	93	25	28	26½	5	17	11
46	529	York	78	162	15	30	22½	—	—	—
64	592	„	79	120	13	20	16½	2	10	6

In Liverpool and Manchester, persons come in to be married; and this disturbs these calculations.

TABLE T.—*Number of MARKS Made in Signing Marriage Registers in the Years ending Christmas 1846 and Christmas 1864; according to the "Registrar-General's Reports," ix, pp. 42, 43, and xxvii, pp. 6, 7.*

Some of the LONDON REGISTRATION DISTRICTS.

Years.	Number of Marriages.		Number of Marks.		Number of Marks to 100 Marriages.			Diminution of Marks in 18 Years.		
			Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women.	Men.	Women.	Men and Women.
1846	145,664	England and Wales	47,488	70,145	33	48	40½	—	—	—
'64	180,387	„	41,998	58,402	23	32	27½	10	16	13
1846	22,272	London	2,581	5,046	12	23	17½	—	—	—
'64	31,541	„	3,450	5,494	11	17	14	1	6	3½
1846	561	Lewisham	121	177	22	32	27	—	—	—
'64	671	„	72	89	10	13	11½	12	19	15½
1846	971	{ St. George's Han- } over Square.....	33	50	3	5	4	—	—	—
'64	1,134	„	30	33	3	3	3	0	2	1
1846	407	{ St. James's, West- } minster	14	38	3	9	6	—	—	—
'64	416	„	8	16	2	4	3	1	5	3
1846	1,629	Marylebone	100	204	6	13	9½	—	—	—
'64	2,071	„	153	209	7	10	8½	-1	+3	1
1846	708	{ St. Martin-in-the- } Fields	52	115	7	16	11½	—	—	—
'64	403	„	19	40	5	10	7½	2	6	4
1846	392	Strand	24	77	6	19	12½	—	—	—
'64	468	„	43	80	10	17	13½	-4	+2	-1
1846	1,496	Shoreditch.....	239	491	16	33	24½	—	—	—
'64	2,076	„	299	504	15	24	19½	1	9	5
1846	308	Bermondsey	37	75	12	25	18½	—	—	—
'64	619	„	93	159	15	26	20½	-3	-1	-2
1846	391	{ St. George's-in-the- } East.....	56	105	14	26	20	—	—	—
'64	469	„	101	159	21	34	27½	-9	-8	-8½
1846	664	Whitechapel	133	242	20	37	28½	—	—	—
'64	676	„	115	198	17	29	23	3	8	5½
1846	512	{ St. George's South- } wark	65	138	13	27	20	—	—	—
'64	663	„	94	147	14	20	17	-1	+7	3
1846	589	St. Giles's	63	141	10	24	17	—	—	—
'64	533	„	56	103	11	20	15½	-1	4	1½
1846	709	City	66	150	9	21	15	—	—	—
'64	632	„	92	144	15	23	19	-6	-2	-4
1846	608	Bethnal Green	135	287	22	47	34½	—	—	—
'64	1,407	„	350	616	25	44	34½	-3	+3	0

TABLE U.—*Return in respect of the Education of Petty Officers, Seamen, Marines, and Boys serving in the Navy, for the Year ending 31st December, 1865, in 227 Ships, 10 Coast Guard Ships, and 5 Divisional Barracks of Royal Marines.*—Abstracted from House of Commons Paper, No. 36, Sess. 1867.

	Total Borne.	In Hospital or on Leave.	Educational Acquire- ment Reported.*	Read.			Write.		
				Well.	Indif- ferently.	Not at all.	Well.	Indif- ferently.	Not at all.
Petty Officers	8,473	1	8,382	6,246	1,669	467	5,415	2,340	627
Per cent.	—	—	—	74·51	19·90	5·59	64·60	27·92	7·48
Seamen	27,689	17	27,051	16,471	7,571	3,009	13,982	9,271	3,798
Per cent.	—	—	—	60·89	27·98	11·13	51·69	34·27	14·04
Marines	15,616	1	15,451	7,865	4,875	2,711	6,154	5,879	3,418
Per cent.	—	—	—	50·90	31·55	17·55	39·82	38·19	21·99
Boys	6,475	—	6,424	4,472	1,884	68	3,924	2,404	96
Per cent.	—	—	—	69·61	29·32	1·07	61·08	37·42	1·50
Total	58,253	19	57,308	35,054	15,999	6,255	29,475	19,894	7,939
Per cent.	—	—	—	61·17	27·92	10·91	50·14	34·71	15·15

* The educational acquirements of 91 petty officers, 638 seamen, 165 marines, and 51 boys had not been ascertained.

MISCELLANEA.

CONTENTS:

	PAGE		PAGE
I.—General Results of the Commercial and Financial History of 1866	138	IV.—The French and English Budgets.....	170
II.—The Estimated Corn-Yield of England.....	151	V.—Workhouse Death-rate in Childbirth	171
III.—Statistics of the Insane Poor of Great Britain	158	VI.—The Actual State of American Finance	173

I.—*General Results of the Commercial and Financial History of 1866.*

THE narrative of the course of British commerce during 1866, given in the supplement to a recent number of the *Economist* as the *fourth* of the annual series, possesses greater interest than usual.

The “credit panic” of the spring was a monetary crisis of unexampled magnitude, in which, says the writer, “The fate of Overend and Co. is the most prominent, and, perhaps the most disgraceful.” The *third* of these histories will be found in the *Journal* for 1866, at pp. 122, *et seq.* The original articles, with many valuable tables and extracts from trade reports, which, for want of space, could not be printed in the *Journal*, will be found in the *Economist* of 20th February, 1864; 11th March, 1865; 10th March, 1866, and 9th March, 1867.

“The year recently closed has been one of almost uniform disaster. The cattle plague, during the earlier months, inflicted losses quite ruinous to the farmers and graziers of several counties both in England and Scotland. The German war, in the summer, disorganised all continental trade. The Fenian invasion in Canada, in the spring; the abrogation of the Reciprocity treaty between Canada and the United States; and the necessary suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act in Ireland throughout the year, as a precaution against Fenian sedition, all operated unfavourably. Cholera was present in the country, more or less, throughout the summer. The weather was persistently wet, cold, and gloomy, and the result was a harvest more generally and seriously deficient than for many years. The change of Ministry, and, for a time, the prospect of a general election, in the midst of a commercial collapse, was a short, but disagreeable, incident of the year’s history. These were disasters all independent of the financial perplexities. The year opened amidst apparent financial calm. But it lasted not long. The

explosion of the notorious joint stock discount company, in February, began a series of failures which went on from less to greater until the final break-up of Overend, Gurney, and Co., Limited, on the 10th May, the issue of the Government letter to the Bank, and the maintenance for fourteen weeks of a minimum rate of discount of 10 per cent.

"1866, therefore, will be memorable as a year of pestilence, war, scarcity, Irish discontent, and as the year in which occurred the most extensive and severe financial crisis of the present century.

"The tone of the circulars classified in the supplement is almost without exception unfavourable. The writers, each speaking of the facts of his particular business, almost without exception, complain of expectations unfulfilled, losses incurred, and former relations of trade broken up. For three or four years, from the operation of a variety of causes, to be referred to presently, demand, in a large number of cases, had outrun supply. The events of 1866 have, in the most abrupt and decisive manner, reversed this order of things, and, by reducing demand far within the limits of supply, have entailed confusion and loss upon large interests.

"The partial failure of the cotton crop in America, and its deficiency in India and elsewhere, will subject this country and the world for another year to the loss and evils of a price of cotton goods, at least one-third dearer than prevailed before 1862. The general bad harvest of 1866 all over Western Europe will still further restrict the purchasing means of the bulk of the population; and the effect of the excessive and blundering system of taxation which the people of the United States are at length beginning to feel and to resent, will sensibly restrain the capacity of that country as a consumer of foreign goods. We must be prepared to find, therefore, that 1866 has left behind it sinister influences, which will penetrate far into 1867, or, perhaps, into 1868.

"The collapse of 1866 has, however, gone far to reduce prices to a level, so free from artificial inflation, that it can be made, with considerable safety, a starting point for new operations. Speaking in general terms, it is probable that in the leading wholesale commodities, the *reduction of prices* in 1866 has been as much as 20 per cent.—in some cases, of course, more, and in others, less.

"In these figures, we see the very considerable fall of price at the end, as compared with the opening of 1866, in the prices especially of metals and raw materials of textile fabrics. Copper, iron, lead, and tin, are from 7 to 20 per cent. cheaper;—cotton, flax, and hemp, and cotton cloth, are from 17 to 40 per cent. cheaper. The fall in the price of wool is only 8 per cent.; and silk, as will be seen from the circular quoted hereafter, is still maintained at a very high price, in consequence of failures of, and impediments to, production. Tea, coffee, and, sugar, are cheaper by 9 to 23 per cent. In these three articles, the effect of the high prices of a few years ago has so stimulated production, that the probability is, that a large permanent fall of price has been established.

"The following table will illustrate in detail, and by *percentages*, the rise or fall at 1st January, 1867, as compared with 1st January, 1866, and three earlier dates:—

1.—Wholesale Prices in London. Comparison of 1st January, 1866, with Three Former Dates, stating in Percentages the Degree in which the Prices of 1st January, 1866, were Higher or Lower than the Prices prevailing at the Three Earlier Selected Dates.

Articles.	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower	Higher	Lower
	Than 1st January, 1866.		Than 1st January, 1864.		Than 1st January, 1861.		Than 1st July, 1857.	
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Coffee	—	17	—	1	13	—	—	1
Sugar	—	9	—	22	—	14	—	50
Tea	—	23	—	14	—	30	—	66
Wheat.....	27	—	50	—	12	—	—	4
Butchers' meat	—	7	3	—	—	—	14	—
Indigo	15	—	20	—	17	—	20	—
Oils	—	—	7	—	1	—	—	—
Timber	5	—	—	7	—	6	—	8
Tallow.....	—	5	14	—	—	22	—	30
Leather	—	2	—	4	—	1	—	15
Copper	—	20	—	20	—	16	—	26
Iron.....	—	12	—	15	—	5	—	27
Lead	—	7	—	4	—	7	—	20
Tin	—	20	—	30	—	38	—	40
Cotton.....	—	40	—	50	160	—	135	—
Flax and hemp	—	17	—	16	—	11	—	4
Silk	—	8	30	—	14	—	—	10
Wool	—	—	—	6	—	7	—	—
Tobacco	—	10	—	60	52	—	—	5
Cotton cloth	—	20	—	36	42	—	60	—
Total Bank Note } circulation of Great Britain }	3	—	3	—	3	—	4	—

Note.—This table, deduced from the percentages in Appendix (D), may be read thus:—On 1st January, 1867, coffee was 17 per cent. *lower* than on 1st January, 1866; indigo was 15 per cent. *higher*, &c.

“The same comparisons may be usefully made with the prices of 1st January, 1864—a date which represents in many ways the commencement of the period of inflation brought to a sudden end in the summer of 1866.

“Wages have fallen in 1866 in several large trades from 10 to 20 per cent. The most decided fall has occurred in the iron trade, and iron shipbuilding trades, in the midland and northern districts. These reductions have only been submitted to after protracted strikes. The strike among the ironworkers on the Tyne, Wear, and Tees, lasted for nineteen weeks, from July to November, and ended in the unconditional surrender of the men. The reduction of wages among the iron workers on the Thames has been, probably, more extensive,

and has arisen from more permanent causes—such, for example, as the extinction, more or less rapid, of the capacity of the Thames to compete in cheapness with the northern rivers, where coal and iron are upon the spot.

“Impelled in a principal degree by the extensive railway constructions of the last four years, the growth of the iron trade has been rapid, as the following table will show:—

2.—*Production of Pig Iron in United Kingdom, 1862 and 1865, as given by the Official Returns of Robert Hunt, F.R.S., of the Office of Mines.*

Districts.	Furnaces Existing.		Furnaces in Blast.		Pig Iron Produced.		Increase 1865 over 1862.
	1865.	1862.	1865.	1862.	1865.	1862.	
	Number	Number	Number	Number	Tons.	Tons.	Per cent.
North of England	188	140	133	85	1,324,000	909,000	45
Scotland	180	171	141	125	1,163,000	1,080,000	8
Staffordshire and } Salop	236	256	164	153	1,016,000	719,000	42
South Wales	198	197	133	125	845,000	893,000	—
Derbyshire and } Yorkshire	79	79	69	58	312,000	243,000	28
Various	38	23	24	15	143,000	97,000	47
Totals	919	866	664	561	4,803,000	3,941,000	22
Increase in 1865	53	—	103	—	962,000	—	—

“We have here an increase of nearly one-fifth in the furnaces in blast, and an increase of more than one-fifth of the iron produced. We see, also, something of the process of removal which is taking place in the trade to the Cleveland and Durham district. For four or five years, capital was bidding for labour, and there has been, consequently, a continuous rise of wages. Suddenly, capital is paralysed, and now labour is bidding for capital, and strikes will only diminish the fund ultimately available for wages and profits. It must be remembered, however, that the collapse has come so suddenly, and in so severe a form, upon both masters and men, that it was inevitable that the readjustment could only be arrived at after painful contests. The same observations apply in substance to the building trades. There, capital has been bidding for labour for five or six years, and wages have risen continuously. There is now a severe check to building operations, and employment is scarce. The high prices of materials and labour have led to important applications of machinery to the production of building materials—such as doors, window-frames, flooring, panels, and the like, and extensive importation of these articles have taken place from the timber regions of the North of Europe.

“It is probable that 1866 will be hereafter referred to as a turning point in the relations of capital and labour in this country, and as marking at least a pause, if not a reaction, in the advancing tide which for a long period has promoted the rise of wages. We

print in the Appendix (M)* a curious representation, sent in November, 1866, from the joiners, painters, bricklayers, and labourers of New South Wales to their English brethren, representing the insufficiency of employment and wages in that colony. In the United States, the combined effect of the depreciated currency and the excessive and penetrating nature of the taxes, presses severely on the working men; and it will gradually become more and more apparent that the destruction of thousands of millions sterling of capital in the civil war has entailed for many years a poverty and exhaustion which even American resources can only slowly overcome. The failure of the American cotton crop of 1866 is a most unfortunate event for that country. It deprives the people of the States of twelve or twenty millions sterling of value, at the very time when it was needed to assist in reorganising their industry. And to this disaster has to be added the disaster almost equally great of the (at least) partial deficiency of the American produce of wheat.

“At present, it seems to be likely that the policy of Congress will be to augment still further import duties, to lessen the number and pressure of the internal taxes of excise, stamps, licences, and assessments on income and property; and to oppose any important reduction of the inconvertible paper currency. The process of reducing the paper currency is full of difficulty. So long as the inflation went on and prices rose, all debtors were relieved of part of their obligations. The opposite state of things of course favours creditors, but imposes the formidable consequence of successive depreciations of all property arising from progressively falling prices. It must be remembered, also, that in 1870 the representation will be readjusted according to the census of that year, and with the certain result of largely increasing the political power of the western or agricultural states, whose interests point to every possible extension of foreign trade; and to the diminution of the political power of the Atlantic States, who are and always have been the chief advocates of protective tariffs. It is barely possible that the principal of the debt will be largely reduced for some time. The internal taxes are too galling and burdensome to be submitted to in their original form after the excitement of the war is expended; and, as will be seen from the Appendix (L), the necessity for immediate fiscal relief is already among the most prominent topics discussed throughout the Union. The cessation of a Government expenditure of 120 millions a-year of borrowed money—that is, of 120 millions a-year of forestalled capital—must, even in America, exert for some time vast influence.

“The following Table (3), quoted from the circular given in the Appendix, shows the progress made in 1866 towards re-establishing the cotton industry of this country upon the footing which obtained prior to 1862. The average price of cotton consumed in 1866 was $13\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb. against $15\frac{3}{4}d.$ in 1865—or a *fall* of more than 14 per cent. But $13\frac{1}{2}d.$ is still nearly *double* the prices which prevailed before 1862—that is to say, that in the year 1861, the United Kingdom paid 32 millions sterling for cotton represented by

* In the *Economist*, q. v.

1,005 millions of pounds weight; while, in 1866, the cost was 52 millions sterling for only 890 millions of pounds weight;—or, to put the case in more manageable figures—in 1866 we gave 32s., where, in 1861, we gave only 20s. for cotton wool, but got one-tenth less in quantity for the larger sum. Until this immense annual loss is remedied by a steady abundance of cheap cotton, we must be content to see the largest branch of our manufacturing industry in a fluctuating, feverish, and unprofitable state. The only solid basis for any extensive trade, foreign or domestic, in articles which must be in the largest degree consumed by the poorer classes, is cheapness—not for a time, but permanent and increasing cheapness.

3.—*United Kingdom, 1856-66. Estimated Value of Raw Cotton Imported, Re-Exported, and Consumed. (Ellison and Haywood's Circular.)*

[00,000's omitted, thus 75,8 = 75,800,000.]

Years.	Imported.	Re-exported.	Consumed in United Kingdom.	Average Price per Pound.	Total Weight Consumed.
	Mln. £	Mln. £	Mln. £	d.	Mln. £
1866	75,8	19,5	51,9	13½	890,7
1865	63,2	17,1	47,2	15¾	718,6
'64	82,2	22,1	52,4	22	561,2
'63	58,0	21,6	40,7	20⅛	476,4
1862	31,1	12,4	26,7	14	449,8
'61	38,7	7,9	32,2	7⅞	1,005,5
'60	36,6	5,5	28,9	6⅛	1,079,3
'59	32,2	4,1	27,6	6½	977,6
'58	27,2	3,3	24,8	6⅜	907,8
'57	28,6	3,5	24,8	7⅛	825,0
'56	26,0	3,3	22,7	6⅞	—

“The manufacturers of Lancashire have already learnt how seriously the duplicated price of cotton goods has contracted the foreign and home demand. The production of 1866 has led to overstocked markets; and 1867 opens with a general adoption of short time, as the only mode of enabling the manufacturer to keep in check the price of the raw material, and clear his warehouses of unsold goods.

“We entirely concur in the following extracts from a circular just issued:—

“The languid condition of business in Manchester, and the unsatisfactory state of trade in the manufacturing districts, in the face of a comparatively firm market here, and very indifferent prospects of supply, would seem to indicate that the production of 1866 was in excess of the purchasing power of the world, at the late range of values; and that, before any important revival of business can reasonably be expected, either time must be given for the absorption of the stocks accumulated in the chief foreign markets, or consumption must be stimulated by a reduced scale of prices.

“The maximum rate of production was attained during the three

or four months succeeding the panic of last May (1866), and was the result of the comparatively low prices then current. For the time being the demand was sufficient to carry off the entire out-turn of the mills; but the rise which subsequently took place, slight as it was, at once arrested business: buyers having supplied their wants, both for actual consumption and for stock, to the fullest extent, refused to follow the advance, and the sequel was a reduced *bonâ fide* business during the closing quarter of the year. Spinners and manufacturers, however, owing to the loss and inconvenience that would have been entailed by a resort to short time, went on producing upon nearly as large a scale as ever, in anticipation of a revived demand; but the demand did not revive, and many producers, being unable to sell in Manchester, shipped their yarns and fabrics, on their own account, to various foreign countries, and thereby brought about the glut which is at present depressing the markets both at home and abroad.

"The reasonableness of this view of the case will be made apparent by a glance at the following statement of the *weight* of goods and yarns exported in 1866, as compared with the average shipments of 1856-58, and 1859-61;—1856-58, average of three years, 609 million lbs; 1859-61, ditto, 659 million lbs; 1866, ditto, 625 million lbs. The exports of 1866, therefore, were $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. greater than those of 1856-58, and duly $9\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. less than those of 1859-61, which were notoriously excessive.

"Of course the clothing requirements of the world are greater now than they were five or six years ago, while the purchasing power of many of our best customers has been largely augmented; but for these circumstances, we could not have disposed of the immense production of last year at more than double the currency ruling before the war. There are more people to clothe, and there is more spare money to spend in clothes, but neither the one nor the other has increased to such an extent as to enable the *calico wearers* of the world to take as much cotton *per head* as they did in 1861, at twice the price then current. Moreover, dear cotton has led to a large increase in the consumption of linen and woollen fabrics, both in this and other countries, and the rival textiles will continue to make headway unless their progress be arrested by a decline in the value of the staple products of Lancashire. In the absence of complete and reliable statistics of the domestic production of flax and wool, we have no means of ascertaining the extent of the increase in the home consumption of linen and woollen fabrics during the past half-dozen years; but that it must have been very great is evident from the extensive substitution of woollen and mixed articles of clothing in place of cotton, and which has long been a matter of common observation. Between 1861 and 1866, the production of flax in Ireland was *quadrupled*, and, during the same period, the home consumption of *foreign* wool rose from 100 millions to 150 million pounds.

"These facts account for the large increase in our exports of woollen and linen goods and yarn, shown in the subjoined statement, to which we have added the shipments of cotton products, for the purpose of comparison:—

[000's omitted—thus 2,634,074 yards = 2,634,074,000 yards.]

	Goods.			Yarn.		
	Cotton.	Woollen.	Linen.	Cotton.	Woollen.	Linen.
	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1859-61 (average 3 years)	2,634,074,	152,818,	132,813,	180,132,	25,964,	31,659,
1866.....	2,556,000,	280,000,	258,000,	139,100,	27,000,	37,500,

In *weight*, the deficiency in cotton is about counterbalanced by the increase in woollens and linen, so that the world's wardrobe is quite as well supplied as it was six years ago, minus the excessive surplus stocks then existing. It may be that the cotton goods of the present day are not so durable as those made in what may be called the pre-Indian period, but against this we have a good set-off in the extra care and economy enforced upon all wearers by the higher prices they have to pay for their calicoes.—*Ellison and Co.'s Circular*, 1st February, 1867.

“The large drain of gold and silver to Egypt, India, and the East, which have been in progress since 1861, chiefly in payment of cotton, came to an end in March and April last (1866), as will be seen from the following table (4). The total export from Europe in 1866 was 9½ millions, or one-third less than the export (14 millions) of 1865.

4.—Exports of Gold and Silver to Egypt and East, per Peninsula and Oriental Steamers, &c.

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
1866.	£	£	£
January	183,000	818,300	1,001,300
February.....	70,500	686,700	757,200
March	16,500	334,300	350,800
April	60,200	376,000	436,200
May.....	4,500	41,000	45,500
June	4,800	12,500	17,300
July.....	13,100	200	13,000
August	5,800	3,700	9,500
September	4,800	8,500	13,300
October	91,200	19,800	111,000
November	22,500	18,000	40,500
December	300	55,500	55,800
Peninsula and Oriental steamers } from Mediterranean ports..... }	477,300	2,374,300	2,851,700
	536,500	3,071,100	3,607,600
French steamers	1,013,800	5,445,400	6,459,300
	1,500,000	1,604,900	3,104,900
Total, 1866.....	2,513,800	7,050,300	9,564,200
„ '65.....	—	—	13,933,000
„ '64.....	—	—	24,317,000
„ '63.....	—	—	21,455,000
„ '62.....	—	—	18,168,000

“For five years, the tide of the precious metals has run so strongly and constantly towards the East, that the supplies from the gold countries have been absorbed for that destination as quickly as they appeared. We shall now see a different state of things. The production of Australia and California will go on as usual, and this country will continue to be the chief and central point of collection and distribution; but the rapidity of that distribution will be greatly diminished, balances will have a tendency to accumulate, and, as we see already, the bullion reserves of the banks of England and France will increase, and possibly attain points of elevation as high or higher than any hitherto reached. Full details of the bullion trade of late years, are given in Appendixes (G, I, and J).*

“The crisis of the autumn of 1864 cleared away a large proportion of the weak and speculative mercantile houses, but it left standing all the new banks and finance companies. The crisis of 1866 has now cleared away most of these also. Looking back over the last four or five years, with the help of the disclosures now become public, it is more and more clear that the chief cause of the collapse of 1866 was the unsound and extravagant ‘financing’ operations of railway companies and contractors. A system had gradually grown up, and in 1862-63 had attained to large dimensions, under which public companies and firms of contractors undertook, not only to provide the labour, materials, and superintendents for extensive works designed to cost millions and to occupy years, but also to take payment in bonds, shares, and other securities, by the disposal of which in the market, the ready money required for the actual work performed should be provided. In other words, the country became committed to transfers of floating into fixed capital to the extent of tens of millions, *without* any previous provision of a body of subscribers who had bound themselves to find the needful resources out of previous savings or accumulations. The exact opposite of this only natural and sound course was followed. The capital was first taken out of the floating balances of the money market, and then the securities representing this premature expenditure were sought to be disposed of to what may be called *ex post facto* investors. For a time, and up to a certain point, the process succeeded. The money market could bear the strain of a few millions, and permanent holders and purchasers could be found for the bonds and shares of some of the earlier and sounder undertakings. The first practitioners of this new art accordingly made large profits so easily and fast, that imitators sprung up on all sides, and the consequence was the hundreds of applications to Parliament during the years 1863-66. It was the mass of bills, bonds, and all sorts of documents put out by these financing contractors and companies, and the credit institutions in league with them, which kept up the rate of discount through 1864, 1865, and 1866, aggravated, of course, by the speculations of the cotton and India trades; and it was the final breaking down of the entire system, in consequence of the extravagant lengths to which it had gone, which was the chief cause of the panic of May, 1866.

* In the *Economist*, q. v.

“It is now clear that Overend and Co. were the initiators of a large part of the mischief. For the last ten or twelve years, Overend’s has been a finance shop of the worst possible character. It was the constant and unfailing resort of people concerned with the wildest schemes, and having nothing to offer but securities, so bad that the borrower never asked what were the rates of interest charged upon them. The millions of money lent to the house by the public, under the belief that they were employed in discounting ordinary trade bills, were, in reality, squandered in advances upon wretched steam navigation companies, preposterous manufacturing companies, advances to American railways, and the support of a race of reckless contractors and schemers, utterly unfit to be treated with on any terms, or for any purpose. It is now clear, that from the moment the control of Overend and Co.’s business fell into the hands of the incompetent and culpable men who have brought to ruin and disgrace a great name and a noble institution, the almost unlimited command of means secured to the house by its previous success became its greatest peril, and led, in a great measure, to the final catastrophe. For a long period, the amount of money constantly left with Overend’s without security, is believed to have been not much short of seven to eight millions sterling. It was this money, which, in blundering hands, worked the mischief. If security in the usual form of good short bills had been required to be given for it, the money could not have been squandered in preposterous enterprises, upon which, even on the most favourable computation, there could be no repayment of capital for years. The revelations consequent on the failure of May last, have shown to the public the interior of this notorious finance shop for the last eight years. During all that time, the losses so greatly exceeded the profits, that in July, 1865, when it was determined to form a limited company for the purchase of the business, the old firm were insolvent to the extent of $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 millions sterling.

“Vice-Chancellor Malins, in his judgment of 9th February, 1867 (see Appendix, P), has finally disposed of all the sophistical pleas which have been put forward in justification of a procedure under which the public were entrapped into putting $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions of good money into a concern utterly bad, and into paying half a million sterling of good-will for the privilege of doing so. The Vice-Chancellor said :—‘In order to make the concern bear an appearance of solvency, it was necessary to take credit for a list of debts amounting to 4,192,000*l.*, but of which it appeared that no more than 1,082,000*l.* could be recovered, according to a careful estimate made by Mr. J. H. Gurney. But it seemed that the directors persuaded themselves that they might rely on the guarantee of the old firm to make good any deficiency of assets. I am decidedly of opinion that the directors were bound to disclose the real state of things to those whom they invited to take shares. The prospectus stated that 500,000*l.* was the price of the good-will of the business of the old firm. Did not that statement imply that the business of the old firm, at the time of the transfer of the business, was highly profitable? It was said that the members of the old firm had guaranteed the company against the liabilities of the old firm, by making

their private estates liable. But these private estates were not sufficient to meet the liabilities of the old firm, and, even if they were, the directors of the company had not taken any precautions to prevent those private estates from being sold, or from being taken by creditors in the event of the bankruptcy of the owners thereof. If the public had been told how matters stood, not a single share would have been taken.'

"The fate of Overend and Co. is the most prominent, and, perhaps, the most disgraceful. But the entire fraternity who throve so conspicuously for a short time on financing, have broken up with more or less scandal. Barned's Banking Company at Liverpool is, in many respects, even a worse case than Overend's. The Joint Stock Discount Company and its manager, Mr. Wilkinson (now in penal servitude for robbing the company), afford another history. There is, then, the Imperial Mercantile Credit Company (London), set up principally to assist the last stages of the 'financing' of the notorious London, Chatham, and Dover Railway; the Bank of London, also largely engaged in the same pursuit; the Agra and Masterman's Bank, to whom a similar remark applies; the Contract Corporation, Limited; Smith, Knight, and Company, Limited; the *old Ebbw Vale Company*, and some others. The contractors' firms—Peto and Co., Savin and Co., Watson and Co., Furness and Co., and a group of minor names, are in the same category of failure. To these must be added, as an indispensable adjunct, the famous Atlantic and Great Western Railway, running from New York for several hundreds of miles to the Western States. This is a line which has been built wholly by financing, chiefly in this country. For several years past, a huge machinery of puffery has been in operation, the dimensions, ramifications, and cost of which, if they could be disclosed, would not be easily credited. After contributing largely to the ruin of most of the financing institutions patronised by it, it has at length (in January, 1867) stopped payment itself, and is now in the hands of a committee of investigation. As regards all foreign enterprises, especially in a country so full of capital and vigour as the United States, when will it occur to people on this side to inquire why, if the investment is so tempting, it is not taken up on the spot, and by people who must know a great deal more about its merits and attractions than can possibly be the case with foreigners? It is not an agreeable feature of this case that the persons concerned in pushing forward its financing operations, have been aided by an almost universal chorus of support from the press. To say the least, this is a result not creditable to the vigilance and judgment of the writers who permitted themselves to accept and endorse statements drawn up so manifestly in a spirit and tone of exaggeration.

"The London, Chatham, and Dover Railway, is the counterpart in this country of the Atlantic and Great Western Railway in America. The English, like the American line, was a contractor's speculation, not a shareholder's investment. The acts of parliament were obtained by a combination of lawyers, engineers, contractors, secretaries, and directors,—a few real shareholders were secured as a nucleus,—and then commenced in right royal style the

system of creating preferences and debentures to be issued to the contractor on his own terms, and passed off among the public, at par if possible, by a machinery of agency, advertising, and commission, so lavish and preposterous, that whenever the details of it can be fully given, the public will experience a new sensation of amazement. The race was between the finishing of the line and the development of the traffic, on the one hand; and the strength of the contractor and the capacity of the market to absorb the incessantly growing pile of paper securities, on the other. The odds were, of course, almost infinite against success; and for the single reason, if for no other, that every omission of securities damaged the credit of the concern, and drew within narrower limits the circle within which money could be had on any terms. The collapse and failure has been most entire and crushing; and so many people have suffered, that it is almost certain that a parliamentary inquiry will be set on foot, vigorous enough to bring the whole history to light.

“The Great Eastern Railway and the North British Railway have each been driven to partial suspension by the same policy of engaging in expenditure, before ways and means were provided by the previous issue of shares or bonds. The directors used up revenue receipts for capital purposes; paid dividends out of loans borrowed for short periods; carried large sums to suspense accounts; and at length broke down, because every means of raising actual money was exhausted.

“These collapses have brought into prominent notice the extreme unsoundness, and the great danger attending the present system of the railway debenture finance of this country. The 120 millions sterling lent upon the mortgage of railways, is nearly all of it in the form of bonds for three or five years, falling due and renewable at irregular dates, and renewable not out of any previously provided sinking or other funds, but only by negotiating new terms with the former or some fresh investor. Means must be found to convert these short loans into a fund resembling the public stocks, and, until this is done, the character of railway securities will be in peril, and the safety of the money market will be subject to serious interruptions.

“The banks that failed in the summer—the Bank of London, the Agra and Masterman’s Bank, the English Joint Stock Bank, the Consolidated Bank, Hallett and Co., Price and Co.—were all, more or less, committed to the unsound financing of which we have spoken. The Bank of London and the Agra and Masterman’s Bank were conspicuous cases of the ruin of excellent businesses by a resort, the most stupid and culpable, to irregular kinds of dealing not belonging to their proper functions.

“The growth of the London system of deposits at call, and a few days’ notice with joint stock banks, has been rapid, and has led to changes not yet understood as perfectly as is desirable and necessary.

“The following Table (5) condenses the facts:—

5.—*Total Amount of Deposits Held by Joint Stock Banks in London at end of Years 1834-66 (as given by Mr. Gassiot's Pamphlet, "Monetary Panics.")*

	£
1834-39 (average)	1,308,000
'40-44 " 	5,436,000
'45-49 " 	9,500,000
'50-54 " 	17,150,000
'55-59 " 	35,750,000
1860 (31st December)	43,098,000
'61 " 	50,606,000
'62 " 	54,262,000
1863 (31st December)	71,333,000
'64 " 	91,363,000
'65 " 	86,429,000
'66 " 	80,717,000

Note.—These figures do not represent the amount of *cash* deposits, in consequence of nearly all the banks following, until within the last few years, the objectionable practice of mixing up their *acceptances* with their deposits. The very large increase after 1860 is in a great measure explained by the rapid growth of the *acceptances*. At present, only two or three of the banks persevere in the practice of confusing the two items. Of the 80 millions appearing at 31st December, 1866, it is probable that 20 to 25 millions represented *acceptances*.

"As pointed out in the note, the reprehensible practice, in two or three cases, of mixing up *acceptances* with deposits, renders it impossible to ascertain what has been the real growth of the deposit system in its separate and purely banking form. The lessons of 1866 will scarcely fail to operate as a warning to some of the banks who have carried out on the largest scale the plan of taking cash deposits on the one side; and making, at the same time, large profits by means of commissions on their *acceptances*, on the other. It is clear that a bank entering largely upon such a career must be prepared to meet, in difficult times, a strain from one or all of three quarters, namely, first, from the falling quotations of its shares in the market; second, from possible alarm among its depositors; and, third, from possible and probable discredit of its *acceptances* in the money market. In point of fact, it is becoming clear that a bank cannot at the same time enjoy the advantages of good credit in attracting deposits, and use and sell the same credit in the form of *acceptances* to any large extent.

"The Indian banks that failed—the Commercial Banking Corporation of India and the East, the Asiatic Bank, the Bank of Hindustan, China and Japan, and some others—were mostly broken up by the effects of the mania at Bombay, and by the speculations in cotton.

"The statements already made prove abundantly that no system of banking legislation could have prevented a most severe panic in 1866—and a panic from which the recovery must of necessity be slow and painful. This opinion, however, is quite consistent with the conviction that it was the fourteen weeks of 10 per cent. from

May to August; and the intense foreign distrust of almost every English signature engendered by that measure, and by Lord Clarendon's circular to diplomatic agents arising out of it, which added greatly to the distress inevitable from general causes. The prolongation of the 10 per cent. carried the financial suffering and loss into quarters which were untainted by the previous irregularities, and entailed upon the country a prostration of enterprise, and a destruction of confidence from which we still suffer, and shall suffer for months to come; and for this prolongation and aggravation of the financial distress, the Act of 1844 is almost entirely responsible.

"Limited liability by itself is chargeable with but little of the mischief that has happened. The Companies Act of 1862 chanced to come into operation at a time when all the elements of a career of extravagance and folly were collected, and it became the accidental pretext for the particular form in which the disorder manifested itself. Nine-tenths, probably, of the limited companies of 1862-65 have failed, not because they were limited, but they were frauds, absurdities, or mistakes. Instances sufficient will remain, in spite of all the devastation, to prove that in competent hands, and with honest intentions, limited liability is compatible with real mercantile success. Whether experience will also show that the finance and credit companies set up in the last few years are capable of developing themselves into institutions of steady and satisfactory progress, is still quite doubtful. There is room, perhaps, for one or two such enterprises, but not for more.

"We enter on 1867 with a load of difficulties swept away. It is probable that the clearance is more complete than any which has occurred since 1850-51, when, by the combined operation of the commercial and political events of 1847, 1848, and 1849, every sort of unsoundness had been probed to the bottom, and every engagement had been reduced to the smallest compass."

II.—*The Estimated Corn-Yield of England.*

THE following interesting article, with the very important table to which it refers, is taken from the *Mark Lane Express* of the 4th February :—

"In another part of this day's paper a tabular statement will be found, based on the Government agricultural statistics lately issued, and brought to a practical purpose by a report which we procured, in 1861, from upwards of five hundred correspondents in different parts of the kingdom. The Government return gives the number

Note.—An abstract of the agricultural statisticks of Great Britain, the first, it is to be hoped, of a regular annual series, will be found at pp. 199, *et seq.*

of acres under wheat, barley, oats, peas and beans, in England; the information being collected in 1866. Our return referred to the average produce per acre of these cereals for ten years, ending 1861, which may be considered sufficiently correct to form a basis, coupled with further information, to arrive at as correct an estimate of the aggregate produce of any given harvest as, under the circumstances, can be obtained. The following return from five counties, taken from the *Mark Lane Express* of the 17th of February, 1862, will explain the manner in which the averages are arrived at:—

1862.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Beans.	Peas.
ESSEX.					
Chelmsford.....	32	40	56	40	32
„	30	40	44	36	—
Coggeshall	28	44	56	32	24
Colchester	32	40	40	30	32
Dunmow.....	36	44	56	28	32
Kelvedon	24	32	40	24	24
Maldon	30	40	48	28	24
Manningtree	36	40	64	32	32
Ockendon	32	44	56	32	30
Roydon	32	40	52	32	32
Writtle	30	36	48	40	32
Gross	342	440	560	354	294
Average	31	40	51	32 $\frac{1}{4}$	29 $\frac{1}{2}$
KENT.					
Ashford	36	36	48	36	32
Benenden	32	—	40	24	24
Boughton Blean.....	36	44	64	36	32
Brabourne	32	32	56	32	24
Elham.....	24	32	48	24	32
Faversham	30	40	52	28	24
Gravesend	38	46	60	28	38
Maidstone	32	48	56	32	32
Ridgway	36	48	56	28	28
Sandwich	26	32	40	24	24
Seven Oaks.....	32	40	60	34	26
Wingham	40	48	56	32	32
Gross	394	446	636	358	348
Average	33	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	53	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	29

1862.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Beans.	Peas.
LINCOLNSHIRE.					
Bardney	24	32	40	32	24
Belvoir Vale	28	32	44	—	—
Boston.....	36	40	60	32	28
Candlesby	32	44	56	32	32
Colsterworth	24	40	48	—	—
Grantham	32	40	48	32	—
Long Sutton	32	40	72	36	32
Market Deeping.....	32	46	64	32	32
Moulton	32	40	64	36	32
Riseholme	32	40	56	24	32
Spalding	40	—	56	40	32
Stamford.....	32	40	52	32	—
Sutton Bridge	32	40	56	32	32
Thurlby Grange.....	32	40	48	24	32
West Theddlethorpe	24	40	—	40	24
Gross	464	554	764	424	332
Average	31	39½	54½	32¾	30
OXFORDSHIRE.					
Bicester	32	40	56	32	32
Chawley	36	44	48	32	32
Cuttesslowe	28	32	36	32	24
Eynsham.....	22	40	48	34	30
Farnborough	32	40	56	40	32
Great Tew	28	32	44	30	30
Hampton Gay	32	40	48	40	32
Henley-on-Thames	28	36	44	—	28
Radcot	28	36	40	32	32
Shipton	32	38	44	36	36
Steeple Aston.....	40	48	64	36	48
Swyncombe.....	34	48	68	40	34
Gross	372	474	596	384	390
Average	31	39½	49¾	35	32½

1862.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Beans.	Peas.
WILTSHIRE.					
Aldbourne	24	36	48	—	—
Badminton	28	32	40	32	36
Baydon	30	40	48	—	32
Broad Hinton.....	32	36	64	32	32
Chippenham	24	32	36	32	32
Lanhill	28	40	44	32	32
Marlborough	32	36	52	28	28
Pewsey	28	40	52	32	32
Salisbury.....	32	40	56	—	—
Swindon	32	36	40	32	32
Warminster	24	32	40	32	32
Gross	314	400	520	252	288
Average	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	47 $\frac{1}{4}$	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	32

“In the absence of official statistical information (with the exception of Ireland), respecting the agricultural produce of the United Kingdom, it has been our endeavour, from year to year, at great expense and trouble, to collect from intelligent and trustworthy agriculturists, in all parts of the country, such facts relating to the yield of the crops as have enabled us to arrive at something like an accurate estimate, and the deficiency or otherwise that might exist in the aggregate yield. With regard to wheat, we have hitherto based our estimate of the aggregate consumption on what is considered to be that of each individual, which we average at one sack of flour, or six bushels of wheat per annum. Taking the population of the United Kingdom, therefore, at thirty millions, this will give an aggregate of twenty-two and a-half million quarters of wheat, or thirty million sacks of flour. The further requirements of the country, over and above what the crop produces, are supplied by importations. Thus, we have always estimated an average crop of wheat of the whole kingdom at from fifteen to sixteen million quarters, and the importations have been regulated by the deficiency under or the excess above that quantity.

“Not only is our estimate of the consumption and production, in the main, justified by the result derived from these tables, but the value of our annual returns of the harvests is proved beyond a doubt, and their accuracy may be safely depended on by the miller and the merchant in arranging their operations for the year, especially now that the Government return gives the breadth of land under the various crops. We may now proceed to explain the nature of the tables which the reader will find on p. 3 (pp. 156, 157, *Journal*).

“It will be seen that there are three columns to each of the cereals. The first gives the Government return of the acreage

under crop in the year 1866. This return was of course collected by individuals properly qualified, and may therefore be depended on for correctness. The second column contains the ten-years' average of the yield per acre ending in 1861, and collected and published by us in 1862, being the substance of 500 letters from all parts of the country. The large scope of this return, which comprehends seasons of all kinds and consequently crops of all acreage yield, may be considered as correct as it is possible to make it. The third is derived from the multiplication of the two first into each other, which gives the gross yield of each county, supposing it to be an average crop.

"There is reason, however, to think that while the acreage yield of wheat of the kingdom has increased, the breadth of land under wheat has decreased, although the consumption has certainly increased year by year. We ground our opinion on this subject upon the fact that the importations of wheat suddenly increased (on an average of seven years) from under five to seven million quarters. The turning-point was the year 1856, the average for the seven previous years being, as we state, five million quarters, whilst that for the next seven years was seven million quarters. There are several reasons for this assumed reduction of the breadth of land under wheat culture. Amongst these are: the low prices of that grain for many years, and the comparatively high price of barley, which on many occasions approached near to that of wheat; the more extensive nature of wheat culture; the uncertainty attending its produce, and the fact that in a year of bad yield the price is kept down by importations below what a deficient crop would warrant to be profitable; the high price of animal food compared with that of bread-corn, which has led to the substitution of green and root crops for cereals—these and other causes, as we believe, have led to a gradual reduction of wheat culture, while the acreage produce has increased by the means of a higher system of cultivation. It will therefore be desirable for the Government to obtain an annual return of the same kind as that which was obtained last season. If the return of the number of acres under crops of cereals of all kinds be procured, it is then in our power to supply what is defective in the Government returns by the aid of the standard information in the second column of the present tables, and our annual reports of the crops, which contain the substance of six hundred reports from all parts of England. The value therefore of these tables will be well understood by all persons interested in the grain trade as well as grain culture. By them the extent of wheat culture, as well as that of other grain, is determined; as also the average yield both per acre and in the aggregate. A future Governmental return (*annually*) must solve the question of the fluctuation in the amount of the culture of any specific kind of cereal produce.

"It would be impolitic to attempt to draw any deduction as to the yield of 1866 until the publication of our returns, which will be given in the course of a few weeks. We shall then be able to show the actual amount of produce in comparison with the average as taken from the yield of the ten years we have cited."

The Estimated Yield of the Crops of 1866 in England if the

Counties.	Wheat.			Barley.			Oats.
	Acres Grown in 1866.	Average per Acre in Bushels.	Average Gross Yield in Bushels.	Acres Grown in 1866.	Average per Acre in Bushels.	Average Gross Yield in Bushels.	Acres Grown in 1866.
Bedford	48,306	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,376,721	29,989	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,064,610	10,526
Berks	61,103	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,046,950	39,911	41 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,666,284	25,259
Buckingham	53,661	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,529,338	31,220	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,178,555	23,842
Cambridge	131,217	32 $\frac{1}{4}$	4,231,748	54,918	41	2,251,638	42,605
Chester	33,368	29	967,672	6,164	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	213,158	46,260
Cornwall	46,815	23 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,111,855	46,535	31 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,477,486	42,975
Cumberland*	23,979	29	695,391	11,372	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	429,293	71,870
Derby	32,572	29	973,588	14,497	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	587,128	29,369
Devon	111,768	22 $\frac{1}{4}$	2,486,838	75,312	31 $\frac{3}{4}$	2,391,156	82,023
Dorset	46,037	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,369,600	38,257	38	1,453,766	22,781
Durham	42,800	25 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,080,700	12,990	33	428,670	45,942
Essex	181,062	31	5,612,922	109,636	40	4,385,440	45,504
Gloucester	88,241	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,426,627	41,614	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,435,683	17,030
Hants	110,824	27 $\frac{3}{4}$	3,075,366	68,033	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,483,204	65,651
Hereford	59,490	25 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,502,122	21,192	32	678,144	12,205
Hertford	58,868	28	1,648,304	46,488	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,650,040	24,977
Huntingdon	43,406	29	1,258,774	21,083	40 $\frac{1}{4}$	848,591	10,889
Kent	104,173	33	3,437,709	41,422	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,677,591	56,080
Lancaster	38,043	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,302,973	7,448	39	290,472	55,617
Leicester	43,679	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,299,451	32,004	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,208,151	20,663
Lincoln	294,014	31	9,114,434	141,001	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,569,539	101,399
Middlesex	9,654	30	289,620	2,222	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	83,325	5,745
Monmouth*	19,796	29	574,084	12,150	37 $\frac{3}{4}$	458,662	7,904
Norfolk	189,398	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,344,833	186,925	42 $\frac{3}{4}$	7,991,043	34,227
Northampton	70,726	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,298,595	54,469	44	2,396,636	19,824
Northumberland	36,814	26	957,164	32,159	35 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,149,684	72,636
Nottingham	67,628	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	2,011,933	49,134	41 $\frac{3}{4}$	2,051,344	17,603
Oxford	57,357	31	1,778,067	53,339	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,106,890	21,248
Rutland	8,870	33	292,710	9,414	43 $\frac{1}{4}$	407,155	3,246
Salop	80,326	24 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,988,068	52,197	29	1,513,713	24,816
Somerset	69,012	29	2,001,348	33,358	36	1,200,888	23,643
Stafford	52,922	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,508,277	30,058	35 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,074,573	30,325
Suffolk	178,021	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	5,118,103	138,496	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	4,916,608	19,030
Surrey	42,083	27	1,136,241	18,865	35 $\frac{3}{4}$	674,423	26,925
Sussex	97,874	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	2,911,751	24,946	41 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,041,495	63,325
Warwick	72,956	30	2,188,680	29,834	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,178,443	13,621
Westmoreland	2,194	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	63,070	2,628	37	97,236	17,042
Wilts	96,800	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	2,783,000	64,868	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,367,682	33,214
Worcester	64,781	29 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,894,844	20,096	39 $\frac{1}{4}$	820,168	7,293
York	290,793	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	8,578,393	170,551	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,736,764	208,856
Total	3,161,431	—	93,267,864	1,877,387	—	71,635,331	1,503,990
Quarters	—	—	11,658,483	—	—	8,954,416	—

* We could not get the averages of either Cumberland or Monmouth, taken for Note.—The average yield, upon which the gross yield has been computed, was

Harvest had been an Average One—from the “Mark Lane Express.”

Oats—Contd.		Beans.			Peas.			Counties.
Average per Acre in Bushels.	Average Gross Yield in Bushels.	Acres Grown in 1866.	Average per Acre in Bushels.	Average Gross Yield in Bushels.	Acres Grown in 1866.	Average per Acre in Bushels.	Average Gross Yield in Bushels.	
47 $\frac{3}{4}$	502,616	18,682	32 $\frac{1}{4}$	602,494	5,301	29 $\frac{1}{4}$	155,054	Bedford
56	1,414,504	14,114	36	508,104	5,655	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	189,442	Berks
48 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,156,337	17,727	30	531,810	5,942	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	175,289	Buckingham
59 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,534,997	24,646	31	764,026	7,989	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	241,667	Cambridge
41 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,931,355	8,752	37 $\frac{1}{4}$	326,014	1,623	30	48,690	Chester
37 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,622,306	103	30	3,090	34	30	1,020	Cornwall
46 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,341,955	447	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	14,527	648	30	19,440	Cumberland*
48	1,409,712	1,701	35	59,675	3,176	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	96,074	Derby
37	3,034,851	893	30	26,790	1,044	30	31,320	Devon
45	1,025,145	3,337	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	95,938	2,455	29	71,195	Dorset
41	1,883,622	3,775	32	120,800	4,411	23	101,453	Durham
51	2,320,704	43,778	32 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,411,840	24,884	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	734,078	Essex
40 $\frac{3}{4}$	693,972	16,620	33	548,460	7,009	31	217,279	Gloucester
47 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,118,422	6,193	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	188,886	7,240	31	224,440	Hants
31 $\frac{1}{4}$	381,406	6,770	33	223,410	6,017	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	165,467	Hereford
44 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,105,232	9,232	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	290,808	6,676	30	200,280	Hertford
54 $\frac{1}{4}$	590,728	13,483	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	424,714	4,935	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	154,219	Huntingdon
53	2,972,240	23,888	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	710,668	18,201	29	527,829	Kent
40	2,224,680	5,598	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	209,923	349	30	10,470	Lancaster
47	971,161	12,121	35	424,235	7,210	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	241,535	Leicester
54 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,526,245	27,667	32 $\frac{3}{4}$	906,093	27,165	30	814,950	Lincoln
57 $\frac{1}{4}$	328,901	1,466	34 $\frac{3}{4}$	50,943	1,469	32	47,008	Middlesex
56 $\frac{1}{2}$	367,536	408	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	13,260	1,143	30	34,290	Monmouth
55 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,899,598	13,364	34	454,376	16,871	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	548,307	Norfolk
53 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,065,540	25,551	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	907,060	9,350	34 $\frac{3}{4}$	324,912	Northampton
40 $\frac{3}{4}$	2,959,917	6,419	28 $\frac{1}{4}$	181,337	5,428	25 $\frac{1}{4}$	137,057	Northumberland
52	915,356	12,148	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	443,402	9,405	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	322,121	Nottingham
49 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,057,088	16,986	35	594,510	7,134	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	231,855	Oxford
53	172,038	1,849	37	68,413	1,336	35 $\frac{1}{4}$	47,094	Rutland
31 $\frac{1}{2}$	781,704	3,550	27	95,850	9,218	23	212,014	Salop
44	1,040,292	13,471	32 $\frac{3}{4}$	441,174	1,888	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	54,280	Somerset
40	1,213,000	4,113	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	146,011	6,690	36 $\frac{3}{4}$	245,857	Stafford
47	894,410	37,405	31	1,159,555	25,503	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	784,216	Suffolk
42 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,144,312	2,966	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	87,497	6,823	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	208,101	Surrey
51	3,229,575	8,548	31	264,988	12,303	29	356,787	Sussex
49	667,429	22,503	34	765,102	12,327	31	382,137	Warwick
34 $\frac{3}{4}$	592,210	68	30	2,040	114	20	2,280	Westmoreland
47 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,569,361	12,309	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	387,733	6,186	32	197,952	Wilts
44 $\frac{1}{4}$	322,715	18,496	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	546,256	8,279	29 $\frac{3}{4}$	246,299	Worcester
51	10,651,656	31,439	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	864,572	24,775	28	693,700	York
—	70,634,828	492,586	—	15,866,384	314,206	—	9,497,458	Total
—	8,829,353	—	—	1,983,298	—	—	1,187,182	Quarters

calculated the yield at the average of the other thirty-eight counties.
taken for each county upon data furnished by the ten years ended with 1861.

III.—*Statistics of the Insane Poor of Great Britain.*

FROM the *Manchester Guardian* of the 18th December, 1866, and 1st January, 1867 :—

1.—*The Insane Poor of England and Wales.*

“The recent issue by the Poor Law Board of the yearly statement of the number of insane paupers chargeable to the unions and parishes of England and Wales is the latest census of that most hapless section of the community. The care of the insane poor throws great responsibility and no inconsiderable expense upon the municipal administration of this country. Their wants demand our constant succour, and the increasing costliness of their maintenance our no less constant vigilance. It has been computed that *six-sevenths* of the insane in England are supported by the public, which in this case means the ratepayers. On this estimate we may add 7,000 or so, to the total in the first table, and the result in round numbers will be 48,000 as the aggregate of insane persons, private and pauper, on the 1st of January last. But it is with the poor, not with the private, patients that we are here concerned; and they amounted to 41,425, of whom 18,209 were males, and 23,216 females.

Insane Paupers Chargeable to the Unions and Parishes, and to the Counties and Boroughs of England and Wales on 1st January, 1866.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Chargeable to the parishes, according to the Poor Law Board	17,437	22,390	39,827
Chargeable to the counties and boroughs, according to the Commissioners in Lunacy	772	826	1,598
Total	18,209	23,216	41,425

The mass is chargeable to the unions and parishes; but a considerable number are supported by the counties and boroughs, and this, so far as the *totality* of the ratepayers is affected, makes no difference; it only shifts the burden from a narrow to a wider district. The incidence of the charge on counties and boroughs arose in this wise:—If a lunatic had no settlement, or if his settlement could not be ascertained, then the charge for his maintenance might ‘be transferred to the county in which he was found’ (16 and 17 Vict. c. 97, and 12 and 13 Vict. c. 32), or ‘in certain cases to the borough in which he was found’ (25 and 26 Vict. c. 111).*

“It is noticeable that the proportion of insane females is greatly in excess of the males in unions and parishes, and but moderately so in the counties and boroughs. The lunatics chargeable to the latter jurisdictions are, we believe, mostly persons found wandering about the country or the towns, and that may account for the smaller ratio of females, males, as a rule, being more addicted to vagrant habits than females.

“Nearly 1,000 included in the 41,425 insane as stated above were criminal lunatics—759 men, and 239 women. Here the females do not constitute *one-fourth* of the whole. A large number of soldiers and sailors are confined as criminal lunatics. This, and the fact that generally the proportion of female criminals is much less than that of male criminals, will sufficiently explain the disproportion.

* “Fry’s Introduction to the Lunacy Acts.” London, 1864.

“But it is of the union and parochial insane poor most is to be said, because of them most information has been supplied.

Insane Paupers Chargeable to the Poor Rates on the 1st January in each of the Eight Years 1859-66.

1st January, 1859	30,318
„ '60	31,543
„ '61	32,920
„ '62	34,271
„ '63	36,158
„ '64	37,576
„ '65	38,487
„ '66	39,827

“Since 1859, as we see, the returns have been obtained annually. It appears that, with the intention of giving greater scientific value to the tabulated facts, the insane were in that year divided into two classes, lunatics forming one and idiots the other; and that all cases of insanity, under whatever denomination entered on the lists, that had commenced at any period subsequent to birth were classed as lunacy; and, in like manner, all cases of insanity returned as congenital were classed as idiocy. In 1857—there is no published return for 1858, when this method of discriminating had not been adopted—the idiots, so called, formed 38 per cent. of the total number of insane poor. In 1859, the first year it was employed, the idiots were found to constitute 29 per cent. only. That, too, was the average of the three years 1859, 1860, and 1861. The ratio has sunk 3 per cent. since, the average for 1864, 1865, and 1866 being 26 per cent. of idiots and 74 of lunatics. Now this does not arise so much from the decrease of idiots as from an increase in the record of lunatics. In 1863 the cost of maintaining lunatic paupers in asylums was cast on the union common fund, and not, as heretofore, upon the parish of their settlement. It was intended to encourage parish officers to send their poor suffering under the severer forms of insanity to the asylums—a costly mode of relief too frequently evaded. A few figures will prove that the act has not been a dead letter.

Lunatic Poor in Asylums and Licensed Houses.

1st January, 1861	18,262
„ '62	18,511
„ '63	20,545
„ '64	21,453
„ '65	22,174

“In the former state of things, between 1861 and 1862, there was only an increase of 249 inmates; but between 1862 and 1863 there was an increase of no less than 2,035; and in the two subsequent years there were also large additions to the asylum patients. It appears likely that the majority of the new cases were those of lunacy properly so called. Reverting to the total number of insane poor, but leaving out of view those who are supported by the counties or the boroughs, it is found that the proportion of the sexes has not changed, comparing 1865 with 1859. At both dates there were 44 males to 56 females in every 100 of the insane.

“The proportion at the present time of the idiot poor to lunatic poor in each division of the kingdom is disclosed by the subjoined table.

Ratio of Lunatic Paupers and of Pauper Idiots to the Total Insane Paupers on the 1st January, 1866.

Divisions.		Insane Paupers.			Ratio per Cent. to Total Insane.
		Males.	Females.	Total.	
1. The Metropolis	Lunatics	2,146	3,415	5,561	89·5
	Idiots ...	299	354	653	10·5
2. South-Eastern.....	Lunatics	1,204	1,639	2,843	70·7
	Idiots ...	541	640	1,181	29·3
3. South Midland	Lunatics	953	1,210	2,163	71·6
	Idiots ...	404	452	856	28·4
4. Eastern	Lunatics	753	1,095	1,848	71·4
	Idiots ...	326	415	741	28·6
5. South-Western	Lunatics	1,189	1,656	2,845	70·7
	Idiots ...	549	630	1,179	29·3
6. West Midland.....	Lunatics	1,730	2,154	3,884	74·9
	Idiots ...	558	745	1,303	25·1
7. North Midland	Lunatics	845	996	1,841	70·0
	Idiots ...	345	442	787	30·0
8. North-Western	Lunatics	1,645	2,056	3,701	77·2
	Idiots ...	538	556	1,094	22·8
9. York.....	Lunatics	974	1,144	2,118	71·4
	Idiots ...	407	442	849	28·6
10. Northern	Lunatics	646	660	1,306	74·3
	Idiots ...	221	230	451	25·7
11. Welsh	Lunatics	678	829	1,507	57·5
	Idiots ...	486	630	1,116	42·5
England and Wales {	Lunatics	12,763	16,854	29,617	74·4
	Idiots ...	4,674	5,536	10,210	25·6

“The diversities of proportion are very great. In the metropolis the idiots form only 10·5 per cent. of the total—this is the *minimum* ratio of the eleven divisions. In Wales the proportion is just fourfold that of London, or 42·5 per cent.—this is the *maximum* ratio of idiots. In the table generally the proportion is less in the manufacturing districts than in the rural. Thus, in the north-western—Cheshire and Lancashire—the percentage of idiots is 22·8, and in the northern 25·7. While in the south-eastern, south midland, eastern and south-western divisions, containing a preponderating agricultural element in their population, the ratios were respectively 29·6, 28·4, 28·6 and 39·3 per cent. But in more restricted areas the relation in number of the lunatic to the idiot poor can be better studied. The great region of manufacturing and mining energy, the north-western, the York, and the northern divisions of England has a markedly smaller proportion of insane poor to the population than any of the other districts.

Paupers in England and Wales on 1st January, 1866 ; the Number whereof that were Insane ; and the Ratio of the latter Class to 10,000 of the Population.

Divisions.	Population in 1861.	Whereof were Insane Paupers.	Ratio of Insane to 10,000.
1. The Metropolis	2,802,367	6,214	22
2. South-Eastern.....	1,805,534	4,024	22
3. South Midland	1,295,149	3,019	23
4. Eastern	1,142,168	2,589	23
5. South-Western	1,833,074	4,024	22
6. West Midland.....	2,434,680	5,187	21
7. North Midland	1,287,947	2,628	20
8. North-Western	2,923,487	4,795	16
9. York.....	1,899,233	2,967	16
10. Northern	1,151,326	1,757	15
11. Welsh	1,311,028	2,623	20
England and Wales	19,885,921	39,827	20

“ Leaving out the districts just named, there is a remarkable uniformity in the ratio of the insane poor ; the lowest is in the north midland and the Welsh counties, 20 per 10,000 inhabitants, and the highest in the south midland and eastern counties, *i.e.*, 23. The ratios do *not* follow the ratio of pauperism, as a rule ; it is not the most pauperised counties that have the largest number of insane poor, nor the least pauperised the fewest. Let us examine the data of the next table.

Paupers of every Description on the 1st January, 1866, in England and Wales.

Divisions.	Number of Paupers on 1st January.	Ratio of Paupers per Cent. on Population.
1. The Metropolis	111,019	4·0
2. South-Eastern.....	97,352	5·4
3. South-Midland	79,505	6·1
4. Eastern	76,566	6·7
5. South-Western	109,410	6·0
6. West Midland.....	105,783	4·3
7. North Midland	55,706	4·3
8. North-Western	102,201	3·5
9. York.....	64,006	3·4
10. Northern	45,567	4·0
11. Welsh	77,698	5·9
England and Wales	924,813	4·7

“ In the metropolis the pauperism was below the average, and the number of insane poor above the average. In the south-western counties the pauperism was 50 per cent. higher proportionally than in London, but the ratio of the insane poor was the same. In the northern division the pauperism was the same as in the metropolis, but the ratio of the insane poor was *one-third* less. Wales, with a far higher pauperism than the west midland counties, counts a lower ratio of its insane poor. No doubt the truth is that other causes than those which produce ordinary pauperism bring the insane upon the rates. The heavy expense of maintaining an afflicted relative in a private asylum may compel people to accept the

only aid within their command. This cause would act more uniformly throughout the community than the distress or the idleness which creates the stock pauper.

“Since matters near home interest us more than those which are remote, we have selected the statistics of 40 unions in the manufacturing and mining districts for the next table. The unions here have been chosen for their size, no other principle of selection was employed.

Insane Paupers on 1st January, 1866, in the undernamed Places, with the Ratio to the Population.

Unions or Parishes.	Population in 1861.	Insane Paupers.	Ratio to 10,000 of Population.
Nottingham	74,693	253	34
Birmingham	212,621	629	30
Leicester	68,056	189	28
Manchester.....	185,410	497	27
Liverpool	269,742	610	22
Stockport	94,335	205	22
Swansea	51,260	103	20
Bury	101,135	197	19
Newcastle-on-Tyne	110,268	214	19
Salford	105,335	198	19
Rochdale.....	91,754	167	18
Sheffield	128,951	232	18
Halifax	128,673	216	17
Carlisle	44,820	71	16
Derby	51,049	83	16
Kingston-on-Hull	56,888	93	16
Leeds	117,556	190	16
Macclesfield	61,543	101	16
Sunderland.....	90,704	145	16
Bolton.....	130,269	206	15
Merthyr Tydfil	93,008	140	15
Newport, Monmouth.....	51,412	78	15
Preston	110,523	164	15
West Bromwich.....	92,480	137	15
Oldham	111,276	168	15
Wolverhampton	111,033	165	15
Ashton-under-Lyne	134,753	184	14
Stoke-on-Trent	71,308	98	14
Tynemouth.....	77,955	108	14
Blackburn	119,942	153	13
Dudley	130,243	175	13
Gateshead	59,409	79	13
Wigan.....	94,561	122	13
Bradford, Yorkshire	106,218	128	12
Birkenhead	61,420	71	12
Huddersfield	131,336	159	12
Chorlton.....	169,579	185	11
West Derby	156,361	150	10
Aston	100,522	92	9
Cardiff.....	58,285	54	9

“From 9 in 10,000 at the bottom of the scale to 34 at the top is a long sweep through the melancholy diapason. The discrepancies in places where more uniformity might have been anticipated are not easily explained. Why should the ratios in these four unions be so wide as 34 in Nottingham, 28 in Leicester, 22 in Stockport, and 16 in Macclesfield? Why in Birmingham 30, and its

suburb Aston and the contiguous parishes which constitute that union, 9? Why in the Wolverhampton and Dudley unions 15 and 13? Why in Liverpool is it 22, and the adjoining union of West Derby only 10; or why, on crossing the Mersey, do we find it but 12 in Birkenhead? Why does Manchester count 27, Salford 19, Chorlton 11, and Ashton-under-Lyne 14? Entering Yorkshire, we discover that Sheffield, Halifax, and Leeds are pretty much on a level, but that Sheffield is 18, while Huddersfield and Bradford are but 12. In the Newcastle-on-Tyne union the ratio is 19, but in the Gateshead union it is only 13. Coming to South Wales, the proportion is 20 in the Swansea union; 15 in the Merthyr-Tydfil union, and 9 only in that of Cardiff.

"Idiotcy, that is congenital insanity, has an endemic character. The rural unions of the south-western counties and of Wales are particularly marked by its prevalence.

*Insane Paupers in the undernamed Unions on the 1st January, 1866,
Distinguishing those who were Lunatics from the Idiots.*

Unions.	Counties.	Insane Paupers.	Whereof were	
			Lunatics.	Idiots.
Chippenham	Wiltshire	76	39	37
Warminster	"	44	29	15
Wilton	"	44	18	26
Tisbury	"	45	27	18
Cerne	Dorsetshire	20	6	14
Totnes	Devonshire	78	48	30
Okehampton	"	49	28	21
South Molton	"	35	19	16
Williton	Somersetshire	49	23	26
Dulverton	"	16	4	12
Wellington	"	76	39	37
Taunton	"	90	58	32
Yeovil	"	54	31	23
Frome	"	57	28	29
Wells	"	29	16	13
Monmouth	Monmouthshire	118	66	52
Neath	Glamorganshire	77	39	38
Gower	"	25	10	15
Llanelly	Carmarthenshire	45	25	20
Llandilo-fawr	"	47	18	29
Carmarthen	"	93	36	57
Narberth	Pembrokeshire	81	33	48
Haverfordwest	"	92	47	45
Newcastle, &c.	Cardiganshire	41	14	27
Aberayron	"	37	9	28
Builth	Brecknockshire	29	11	18
Newtown	Montgomeryshire	57	28	29
Llanfyllin	"	64	34	30
Holywell	Flintshire	79	35	44
Dolgelly	Merionethshire	36	17	19
Ruthin	Denbighshire	45	22	23
St. Asaph	"	86	35	51
Llanrwst	"	23	5	18
Pwllheli	Carnarvonshire	70	22	48
Carnarvon	"	46	23	23
Conway	"	37	18	19
Angesey	Anglesey	51	24	27
Holyhead	"	47	25	22

"The average percentage of idiots to the total of the insane poor was shown to be, for the whole of England and Wales, 26. But here it is over 50 per cent.; there were 1,079 idiots out of 2,088 insane. The social and fiscal condition of the agricultural labourers in Wilts, Dorset, Devon, and Somerset is, we believe, lower than that of the same class in any other equally extensive district of Great Britain. Physical and moral agencies seem there combined to degrade the race. In some of the villages of Somersetshire a foreign physician, familiar with the cretinism of the Alps, found a few years ago that hideous form of congenital insanity prevalent. The rural Welsh speaking no English form a comparatively small and secluded population. Under such conditions inter-marriages with blood relations will take place that may not, indeed, be contrary to the ecclesiastical canon, but which may, nevertheless, violate physiological laws. Whatever the causes, idiocy has attained its greatest development in the principality. Take, for example, the Aberayron union, where out of 37 insane poor 28 are idiots; or the Pwllheli union, where there are 48 idiots to 22 lunatics."

* * * * *

2.—*The Insane Poor of Scotland.*

"Those who make it their business to look into blue-books and parliamentary papers are often impeded, if not quite baffled, in their endeavours to compare statistically one part of the United Kingdom with another—England with Scotland or either with Ireland. To be north of the Tweed or west of the Irish Channel is to breed discordance, not in the facts, but in the mode of presenting them, or in the probability of presenting some of them in any shape. Haply the data are collected by different departments, each anxious to vindicate its patriotism and independence by studiously avoiding, as far as possible, the course followed by its neighbours. The census, the criminal returns, the reports of the poor law boards and of the commissioners who, under different designations, are charged in each country with administering the law relating to the custody and care of the insane, are all pregnant instances in point. Many others could be given—unfortunately they are all too numerous. Anxious to collate the Scotch returns of the insane poor with the English, we find in the former that the broad distinction of the afflicted into lunatic and idiot has not been attempted; while, on the other hand, the Scotch Commissioners note much of great interest in the study of mental disease which the English office, during its eighteen or twenty years' existence, has quietly ignored. Practically this diversity of procedure, whatever may be the subject-matter concerned, affords the *minimum*, and not the *maximum*, of result which the public have a right to demand. In many respects our returns are as discrepant as those of three separate nations existing under different laws and speaking different languages; possibly more so.

"The earliest return for Scotland in the present series dates from 1858, and terminates in 1865—that is, a year earlier than the English returns which were recently noticed in these columns.

Number of Insane Poor in Scotland on the 1st January in each of the Eight Years underwritten.

	Total Number.	Whereof were in	
		Asylums and Poorhouses.	Private Dwellings.
1st January, 1858	4,737	2,953	1,784
" '59	4,980	3,103	1,877
" '60	5,226	3,379	1,847
" '61	5,257	3,470	1,787
" '62	5,289	3,548	1,741
" '63	5,283	3,604	1,679
" '64	5,320	3,683	1,637
" '65	5,392	3,783	1,609

“There is no reason to suppose that the Scotch reports exclude any class of insane poor that is included in the English returns. As regards ‘idiots,’ though the distinction is not preserved in the tables, there are special institutions in Scotland for the reception of cases of congenital insanity. Between 1865 and 1858 there has been an increase of the insane, according to the figures above, of 655 or $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.—a far lower rate of increase than observable in England and Wales during the eight years, seven of which are the same as in Scotland, *i.e.*, between 1866 and 1859, where the rate was 31 per cent. In England and Wales the ratio of the insane poor chargeable to the poor rates, on the 1st January last, was 20·0 per 10,000 of the population; in Scotland it was, on the 1st January, 1865, 17·0 per 10,000. If we could be sure that the insane in both kingdoms are equally well and fully recorded, this comparison would indicate a psychological difference. Poor laws are old in England and new in Scotland. With us the registration of the insane poor has been specially provided for and encouraged. It is not long ago that the English Commissioners in Lunacy explained the apparent increase of insanity by the fact of the ampler records that were periodically furnished them than they formerly obtained from the unions. Before we can safely affirm that the insane poor of Scotland are 2·4 per 10,000 less than those of England and Wales, we must be certain that there are no statistical discrepancies in the returns of the two countries.*

“The Scotch reports give the number of the insane who are private patients, and for using these data occasionally we shall offer no apology, though the ‘insane poor’ is our proper theme. On the 1st January, 1865, there were 1,076 private patients in Scotland. Hence the total of the insane was then 6,468; hence, too, the private patients constituted *one-sixth* of the aggregate number. In England and Wales the corresponding ratio was *one-seventh*. The Scotch Commissioners observe that there has not been much increase in the number of private patients, while the augmentation of the poor class has been considerable. ‘This difference,’ they say, ‘in the growth of pauper and private lunacy depends not so much on the smaller proclivity of the wealthier classes to insanity, as on the pauperising tendency of the malady, which leads to a considerable number of patients being every year transferred from the category of private inmates to that of paupers.’ Of course it is to be understood from what has been already said that the term ‘lunatic’ in the Scotch tables is co-extensive with ‘insane’ in the English tables. * * * Taking all Scotland into the computation, it is found that the female to the male paupers are nearly as 3 to 1; but that the female pauper lunatics are not much in excess of the males. The exact ratio in respect of each class is shown in the following table for the four years ended with 1865 :—

	Proportion of Female Paupers to every 100 Male Paupers.	Proportion of Female Pauper Lunatics to every 100 Male Pauper Lunatics.
1st January, 1862	297·3	121·0
” ’63	288·8	118·6
” ’64	279·3	117·7
” ’65	288·3	117·7

“The Scotch Board of Lunacy report that :—

“In the proportion of pauper lunatics to the population, great discrepancies occur in different counties, which must be dependent (1) on differences in the constitution of the inhabitants; (2) on differences in their education and mental culture; (3) on different degrees of social intercourse, and in the amount and nature of their occupations; and (4) on differences in their pecuniary position. These discrepancies, however, as they appear in the table, p. xxxiii, are so various and manifold that we are not able to maintain that pauper lunacy is more or less abundant among a manufacturing or agricultural population, or among people of Saxon or Celtic race

* “The Scotch officers seem to be aware that their enumerations are to a extent deficient.—See Eighth Annual Report, p. 251.”

But the following table shows that the amount of pauperism and pauper lunacy in all Scotland varies very little in different years :—*

	Of Registered Paupers to Population.	Proportion per 1,000 of Pauper Lunatics to Population.	Of Pauper Lunatics to Paupers.
1st January, 1859	27·174	1·809	66·572
„ '60	25·253	1·717	68·002
„ '61	25·612	1·727	67·433
„ '62	25·707	1·725	67·108
„ '63	25·705	1·736	67·558
„ '64	25·693	1·757	68·414

“ The more important features of the table alluded to by the Commissioners in the last paragraph are embodied in the next statement :—

Counties.	Registered Paupers at 14th May, 1864.	Pauper Lunatics at 1st January, 1864.	Proportion per 1,000	
			Of Pauper Lunatics to Population.	Of Pauper Lunatics to Paupers.
Aberdeen	5,878	411	1·846	69·921
Argyll	3,264	228	2·864	69·852
Ayr	5,119	239	1·200	46·688
Banff	1,709	87	1·502	50·906
Bute	539	33	2·020	61·224
Caithness	1,341	97	2·298	72·334
Dumfries	1,868	139	1·831	74·411
Kirkcudbright	1,342	98	2·306	73·025
Wigtown	1,789	93	2·209	51·984
Edinburgh	6,782	626	2·284	92·303
Peebles	232	23	2·035	99·137
Elgin	1,355	89	2·063	65·682
Fife	3,480	259	1·670	74·425
Kinross	160	14	1·958	87·500
Forfar	4,168	440	2·152	105·566
Lanark	13,445	793	1·238	58·981
Haddington	1,120	86	2·286	76·785
Inverness	3,084	195	2·186	63·229
Sutherland	882	52	2·152	58·957
Ross and Cromarty	2,878	179	2·171	62·195
Nairn	273	20	2·396	73·260
Kincardine	1,090	87	2·496	79·816
Orkney	815	54	1·666	66·257
Perth	3,640	354	2·659	97·252
Renfrew	4,340	184	1·090	42·396
Roxburgh	1,115	110	2·023	98·654
Berwick	1,113	55	1·507	49·415
Selkirk	145	13	1·330	89·655
Shetland	887	48	1·515	54·115
Stirling	2,008	130	1·466	64·741
Dumbarton	1,250	75	1·384	60·000
Linlithgow	943	52	1·331	55·143
Clackmannan	538	30	1·270	55·762
Total	78,682	5,383	1·757	68·414

* “ Eighth Annual Report of the Board of Commissioners for Lunacy ”—Scotland.

“Certainly the diversities are here sufficiently wide. In Renfrewshire the ratio of pauper lunatics is 10·9 per 10,000 of the population; in Argyllshire and in Perthshire it is respectively 28·6 and 26·6. In Forfarshire the pauper lunatics form more than *one-tenth* of the pauperism; in Banffshire and Wigtownshire they constitute *one-twentieth* of the aggregate; in Edinburghshire the lunatics are 9·2 per cent. of the total pauperism; in Peeblesshire, which is a small county, they are 9·9 per cent.; and in Lanarkshire they are 10·6 per cent. In Renfrewshire the proportion is at the lowest, namely, 4·2 per cent. There are other points in the table worthy of note. Compare Aberdeenshire with Argyllshire—two counties greatly different in their physical and social characteristics. Pauper lunacy in each forms 7·0 per cent. of the total pauperism, but that in its turn constitutes 2·6 per cent. of the population in the first-named county, and 4·1 per cent. in the second; consequently the ratio of pauper lunatics to the population in Argyllshire is 10 per 10,000 higher than in Aberdeenshire.

“There is a greater claim to scientific detail and precision in the Scotch Commissioners’ reports upon lunacy than is to be found in the papers laid before Parliament by the English Commissioners. All the following tables, in which private as well as pauper patients are returned, we submit in evidence. We commence with the circumstances under which more than 10,000 patients quitted the Scotch establishments during the seven years ended with 1864, and have summarised the particulars in the next table.

The Number and Manner of Removal of Scotch Lunatics from the Commissioners’ Register in the Seven Years ended with 1864.

	Private Patients.	Pauper Patients.	Total.
Number removed	2,535	7,473	10,008
By recovery:	1,112	3,410	4,522
„ removal, not recovered ...	892	1,227	2,119
„ death	531	2,836	3,367

“The cases here are numerous enough to avoid those accidental disturbances which often arise when the facts investigated are too limited. Now, as regards recovery, the private and the poor patients are nearly on an equality—respectively 44 per cent. and 46 per cent. of the numbers removed; but with regard to the persons removed who have *not recovered*, the figures are very different, 35 per cent. of the private patients against 16 per cent. only of the poor. The removal by death of the private lunatics is therefore 21 per cent., against 38 per cent. of the pauper lunatics. Respecting these discrepant ratios of *unrecovered* cases, the Commissioners observe that:—

“The number of private patients annually brought under our cognisance is, on an average, a little in excess of a third of that of pauper patients. The recoveries are nearly in the same proportion, being slightly in favour of the paupers; but we see from the foregoing table that, in the removals of unrecovered cases, there is proportionally a great preponderance of private patients. To what extent this preponderance is due to the greater ability of the relatives of private patients to provide for them in a satisfactory manner at home, or to the pressure on their resources of the expense of the patient’s maintenance in the asylum; or, on the other hand, how far it is owing to the difficulty of properly providing for pauper patients in private dwellings, or to the impediments placed in the way of their removal by statutory regulations, it would be difficult to determine.

“The two next statements embrace a smaller number of facts than the last, but the instructive manner in which the data are handled by the Scotch Board should stimulate the officials of Whitehall Place to follow an example so suggestive and significant. Preserving the figures, we have taken the liberty of dividing the Commissioners’ table into two, and of adding a column of ratios to each. These

tables represent the progressive history of all the patients admitted into the Scotch asylums in 1858, and traced during the seven following years. The tables, when they shall have been continued long enough, will be exhaustive of the asylum population of the year selected. There were 1,308 patients, *i.e.*, individuals, admitted during the year, 30 of whom had been discharged during the twelve months but were re-admitted before 31st December, 1858; hence the 'number of patients under treatment'—we should for clearness have preferred the term *cases*—is called 1,338. Similarly, the re-admissions which go to make up the total in the first column of the subjoined table for 1859 are 74; for 1860, 53; for 1861, 37; for 1862, 43; for 1863, 26; for 1864, 26; and for 1865 they are 11.

Progressive History of 1,308 Private and Pauper Lunatic Patients Admitted into the Scotch Asylums in 1858, so far as concerns Recoveries.

	Number of Patients under Treatment during each Year.	Number thereof who Recovered in same Year.	Ratio per Cent.
1858	1,338	338	25·3
'59	898	194	21·6
'60	652	36	5·5
'61	583	38	6·5
'62	531	19	3·6
'63	496	24	4·8
'64	470	10	2·1
'65	449	7	1·6

"The ratio column shows the yearly percentage which the second column of figures bears to the first. It confirms a well-known law in mental pathology—the rapid diminution in the chance of the patient's recovery in proportion to the duration of his attack. In the first year of admission *one-fourth* of the patients recovered; in the second year *one-fifth*; in the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth years the chances upon the average were reduced to *one-twentieth*; and the seventh and eighth years hopes of recovery were tending to rapid extinction.

"During the eight years 182 were discharged 'unrecovered,' that is 14 per cent. of the initial population of 1,308; the deaths were 338, or 26 per cent. on the same basis.

Progressive History of 1,308 Patients Admitted into Scotch Asylums in 1858, so far as concerns the Number Discharged Not Recovered, and the Number who Died.

	Discharged Unrecovered during the Year.	Deaths during the Year.	Ratio of Deaths to the Total Number of Patients under Treatment.
1858	68	108	8·1
'59	28	77	8·6
'60	25	45	6·9
'61	28	29	5·0
'62	9	33	6·2
'63	7	21	4·2
'64	10	12	2·5
'65	7	13	2·9

"The ratio of deaths in each year is computed on the 'number of patients under treatment' and not upon the number of persons. The death-rate, like the rate of recovery, diminished with the march of time, but in far less proportion, as

the figures plainly tell. If the asylum population of every year could be exhaustively traced for the United Kingdom in the manner initiated in the Scotch returns for 1858, the nation would ultimately possess an invaluable contribution to the therapeutic and vital statistics of insanity. The recoveries in the Scotch establishment during the latest year returned, that is, in 1865, were 628; of these, 291 were of male and 337 of female patients.

Table of Recoveries from Lunacy of Private and Pauper Patients in the Public Asylums, Licensed Houses, Parochial Asylums, and Poorhouses of Scotland in One Year.

	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.
Total number recovered in the year 1865	291	337	628
Period of Residence when Discharged—			
Under 1 month	16	16	32
1 month and under 3 months	86	89	175
3 months " 6 "	72	86	158
6 " " 9 "	49	59	108
9 " " 12 "	19	34	53
12 " " 18 "	21	26	47
18 " " 2 years	11	8	19
2 years and under 3 years.....	9	8	17
3 " " 5 "	2	6	8
Over 5 years	6	5	11

“In the previous table it was shown that as the *years* ran on the chances of the patient’s restoration to mental health declined; here the law holds good of *months*. The most favourable anticipations, according to the results of the last tabulation, which we have every reason to believe are not abnormal, may be entertained of those who have been under asylum treatment for six months—365, or 58 per cent., recovered in that time; under nine months the recoveries were 473, or 75 per cent.; before the twelve months had quite run out, 526, or 84 per cent. of the total restorations of 1865 had been effected.

“Before concluding, there is one statement that ought not to be overlooked. It shows for the years 1858 to 1865 the monthly admissions, recoveries, and deaths in the Scotch establishments :—

	Admissions, 1858-65.		Recoveries, 1858-65.		Deaths, 1858-65.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
January	369	418	125	172	136	119
February	336	360	144	189	150	115
March	373	477	148	189	124	117
April	389	484	134	183	148	117
May	408	502	197	242	117	117
June	470	514	156	226	118	108
July	446	514	167	223	102	118
August	393	501	173	212	93	93
September	371	383	140	213	83	95
October	397	423	170	212	109	106
November	341	400	137	176	116	99
December.....	328	325	155	237	143	109
Totals	4,621	5,361	1,846	2,474	1,439	1,313

“We have here nearly 10,000 cases, and it will be observed that the females admitted exceeded the males by 740, or 16 per cent., while the recoveries experienced by the female patients exceeded those of the males by 630, or 34 per cent. This preponderance in the favour of the female patients is noticeable at all seasons. Admissions and recoveries of both sexes attain their *maximum* in the summer months of May, June, July, and August, while mid-winter and spring are marked by a preponderance of deaths—the mortality being greatest in December, January, February, March, and April.”

IV.—*The French and English Budgets.*

FROM the *Economist* of the 29th December last. This article will be read with interest by those who are acquainted with General Balfour's paper on the same subject, in vol. xxix, part 3, of the *Journal*:—

“Most financial inquirers have looked at M. Fould's statement, and it may be doubted whether one in a hundred or even one in a thousand have derived any information from it whatever. The maligners of the empire say that this obscurity is intentional. But, in fact, no desire to enlighten and no faculty of exposition would suffice to make clear to most men what M. Fould attempts to tell them. Eminent statistical writers much prefer the French accounts to the English. They tell us that their divisions are clearer; their details more exact; their whole structure neater and nicer. But they do not tell us what a clever statistician is not very apt to recollect,—the political cost at which this arithmetical prettiness is bought.

“The French budget attempts three things which the English does not. First, it makes up what we may call the real revenue of each year and the real expenses of each year. The English system is very rough. We only regard (technicalities apart) what revenue is received at the head treasury during the year and what money has been issued from the head treasury for services and payments during it. It is in principle a cash account of income, and a cash account of outgoing. But the French are more elaborate. They impose a certain set of taxes for the year, but the whole of these taxes may not come to hand for months after the year. Our income tax, as every one knows, is very often months in arrear, and it is so with many taxes in all countries. Credits, for example, are given (like our malt credits) to various taxpayers, who are not expected to pay, and do not pay, till that credit is expired. Now, all such outlying moneys, say of the year 1866, the French financiers treat as belonging to the year 1866; they are not, indeed, received during it; but, still, they belong to it. Some one, during 1866, became liable to pay, either at the time, or hereafter, those sums, and so the State got richer. Just so on the other side of the account. Liabilities may have been incurred by the State for work done during the year, and those debts to pay are to be reckoned against the debts to come in. And, again, the French financier follows the expenditure to subordinate dispensers. Although the money may have been drawn from the head treasury, it may be lying in a minor one, and this, if not wanted for a liability of 1866, a French financier would not treat as an outgoing of 1866. Why should he? he would ask. It is a transfer, so to say, of a sum of money from a head office to a branch office. The accounts, therefore, of the Imperial Government resemble nothing so much as the accounts of careful shipowners. In these there are various ‘voyages’ open at once, and money is not treated as actually expended merely because the captain has drawn for it: the voyage account stands open till all the freight earned has come in, till all the incurred liabilities are discharged, till the captain has accounted for all the money he drew from England and repaid the balance, if any. Substitute the ‘*exercice*’ of the year for the voyage of the ship, and you have the Paris account-books with 1864, 1865, 1866 all open at once.

“Again, the French try to show not what their casual income and casual out-going for the year is, but how much of each is due to permanent, and how much to temporary causes. A private person in his annual make-up usually states not only what he received, but also whether he is likely to receive it again; not only what he spent, but also whether he must spend it in future. He says:—‘There was the trip to Rome, that need not come again; and, on the other hand, there was a 200*l.* legacy, which will not come again either.’ Just so a French financier divides his accounts on both sides into ‘ordinary and extraordinary,’ to show, if possible, what is the permanent state of the national finance, and what its perturbed and momentary state.

“Lastly, to secure a sufficient time for all this elaboration, the French financier looks far into the future. The accounts for 1866 were presented to the Chambers last February, and those of 1868 will be discussed in a month or so. But though such distant anticipations may be careful, they cannot be correct. The world abounds in unforeseen events, and each great national event leaves its mark on the national finance. In consequence, this original budget (divided as it is into ordinary and extraordinary) has to be supplemented by the budget *rectificatif* or ‘corrected budget,’ and this, as now, in M. Fould’s, receives itself supplementary alterations and annotations.

“Every one who knows anything of the difficulty of explaining at all effectually even simple matters of account, will know that such elaborate figures as these can never be understood by many persons, and that even among those persons there are sure to be many wranglers about them. As to explaining them to the public, the attempt would be childish, and M. Fould does not attempt it. His reports are a sort of ‘minutes’ suitable to an office where every one has the accounts at hand—where any one can turn up any voucher he wants—where any one can ask for an explanation which he wants. But such reasoning as the following is not suitable to the general public:—

“‘The receipts in the budget for 1867, submitted to the Legislative Body, and voted by it in 1866, were based upon the amount of receipts realised in 1865. Now, as I have explained already, a comparison of the first eleven months of 1866 by a corresponding period of 1865, shows for 1866 an increase of 45,000,000 in the indirect revenues. When such a result is gained in a year that has been marked with trials of all kinds, we have a right to expect that in the following year the increase in the produce of the indirect taxes will not slacken. It is, therefore, reasonable to estimate at 90,000,000 the overplus to be carried to the rectified budget of 1867.

“‘Added to this sum 3,400,000 increase upon the direct taxes, 5,000,000 for the coast, woods, and the lands at Havre brought over from 1866, and nearly 3,000,000 from some other sources, we may reckon upon sufficient resources to meet the expenses about to be enumerated, if we take into account the annulments which occur every year to diminish the total of open credits.’

“The world at large cannot criticise such reasonings as these; it has no access to back figures; it must take them on trust if it takes them at all.

“But the political effect is, that the French nation can form no opinion about its finance. It is told too much, and in too abstract a form, and so knows nothing. The English Chancellor gives every year a rough popular account of the general state of things, and this can be broadly criticised and dealt with. And it is only so that a free nation can judge of its finance. If it attempts precision it ensures failure.”

V.—Workhouse Death-rate in Childbirth.

FROM the *Pall Mall Gazette* of the 25th January last:—

“Soon after his accession to office Mr. Gathorne Hardy, as President of the Poor Law Board, moved for a return of the number and mortality of child-bearing

women in the metropolitan workhouses. Considering how much had been said about the neglect or positive ill-treatment of the sick poor of London by the guardians and their officers, it seems strange that no light upon the question had been sought in this direction before. The condition of these poor women must naturally, under any circumstances, excite the liveliest sympathy. Now, what is their condition as disclosed by Mr. Hardy's brief statistics?

"It appears there are thirty-nine workhouses in the metropolis, and during the year 1865 the number of cases of childbirth was 2,728, and that the deaths from that cause amounted to sixteen in the same year. These deaths occurred in nine workhouses only. The facts may be summarily expressed by naming only those places which experienced any mortality. Thus:—

	Number of Cases of Childbirth.	Number of Deaths Therefrom.
Thirty workhouses.....	1,754	Nil
St. Martin-in-the-Fields	27	1
St. Marylebone	306	2
Hampstead.....	5	1
St. Pancras.....	249	3
Islington.....	91	5
East London	41	1
West London.....	52	1
Whitechapel	107	1
St. George's, Southwark	96	1

"Taking the aggregate numbers of both series, we find that the death-rate in childbirth for all the metropolitan workhouses was 6 per 1,000 cases. Is this a small or a large ratio? We cannot say until it is measured on some fair standard. To discover the means of a very exact comparison—so exact that all the conditions of the problem shall be rigidly alike—is difficult, and in London perhaps impossible. Some test, however, is supplied by the experience of one or two of the larger lying-in hospitals. There is Queen Charlotte's, for instance, which possesses a great reputation as a school of obstetric practice. Dr. Brodie, in the *Medico-chirurgical Transactions* of 1864, has given the mortuary statistics of the last-named institution and of several kindred establishments. From that source the following figures have been drawn:—

	Years of Experience.	Cases of Childbirth.	Deaths in Childbirth.	Death-rate per 1,000 Cases of Childbirth.
Queen Charlotte's Hospital, 1857 to 1863	7	2,268	90	40.0
Rotunda Hospital, Dublin, '57 ,, '61	5	6,521	169	26.0
British Lying-in Hospital, '49 ,, '61	13	1,581	11	7.0
The thirty-nine workhouses of London } in 1865	1	2,728	16	6.0
Out-door midwifery department, St. } George's Hospital, 1856 to 1863 }	8	2,800	10	3.5

“ We must take the comparison here instituted for what it is worth ; it may be urged with some truth in depreciation of the table that the figures which represent the metropolis relate to one year only, the other figures to several. Notwithstanding this, the ratios of the final column are certainly suggestive. Of the four *in-door* establishments named, the London workhouses exhibit the lowest death-rate. It is only when we reach the *out-door* cases of St. George’s Hospital that we discover a death-rate yet lower. The heavy mortality of Queen Charlotte’s Hospital Dr. Brodie assigns to very special causes. Foremost is the great number of single women received there ; the mortality of the unmarried being far beyond that of the married women in childbirth. The records of five-and-thirty years show that the death-rate of the latter is 18, and of the former 35 per 1,000 cases in Queen Charlotte’s.

“ ‘ A great mortality,’ says Dr. Brodie, ‘ amongst unmarried women on their passage through the puerperal stage has always existed.’ The depressing circumstances necessarily incident to their unfortunate condition are sufficiently obvious. At the Rotunda Hospital, where the death-rate is fully four times that of the London workhouses, the authorities ‘ profess only to admit married women.’ The British Hospital approximates closely to the London workhouses by its low death-rate. This institution restricts its benefits to married women and to ‘ those in not larger numbers than about 120 annually.’ The eight years’ practice of the out-door midwifery department of St. George’s reveals a death-rate exactly one-half that assigned to the British Hospital and rather more than half that which occurred in the workhouses. Speaking of these out-patients, Dr. Brodie remarks, ‘ Women delivered at their own habitations, as I know by experience, are often living in the greatest filth and poverty, with only one room to accommodate the wants of a whole family, and yet, as will be seen, these patients do infinitely better than those who are removed to a spacious well-ventilated building, with every comfort and attention that can be desired.’ This is certainly a very startling statement, and we should like to see some further explanation of it.

“ The death-rate in Queen Charlotte’s Hospital was, as we have shown, more than *six-fold* that deduced from the workhouse data of 1865. The child-bearing women of the *in-door* pauper class are probably exposed before entering the workhouses as the time of parturition approaches to all or most of the depressing agencies which Dr. Brodie has indicated in regard to the females who avail themselves of the benefits of the institution to which he is professionally attached. We cannot pretend to say why the difference between the death-rates should be so great. We must here content ourselves with registering the facts. It is to be hoped, looking to the importance of the inquiry, that Mr. Hardy will push his researches a little further, and place before the public a wider range of statistics, extending over four or five years, say, and that their value may be enhanced by discriminating in his next return the married from the single women.”

VI.—*The Actual State of American Finance.*

FROM the *Economist* of the 22nd December last :—

“ The report of the Secretary of the Treasury at Washington is, in one respect, very unlike the budget speech of our Chancellor of the Exchequer. The interest of Mr. Gladstone’s great speeches is prospective ; men throng the avenues of the house, asking, What is the surplus, and what will he do with it ? That surplus depends on his reckoning for the coming year,—is, in fact, the difference between the estimated revenue and the estimated expenditure for that year. But at Washington the finance executive has no control over the coming year. That lies with Congress. Our Chancellor of the Exchequer—being the representative of a ministry elected by

Parliament, and possessing a majority in Parliament—can act as a rule as he thinks best. But the Secretary of the Treasury in the United States is only the appointee of the President, who may or may not have a following in Congress. Now, as we all know, Mr. Johnson has no effectual party in either house, and his ministry will have very little influence on what Congress may decide to do. The interest, therefore, of the Secretary's speech is historical; it relates to the past year and its results. The modest retrospect which in England Chancellors of the Exchequer only formally propound, here makes in this case the principal interest.

"The history, indeed, is very curious, and has this interest, that it is history, and not anticipation. The principal objection which we make to Mr. McCulloch's report is that he does not tell his story in quite the plainest way. A good many figures are accumulated, which do not help much. But he does not put *quite by themselves* the income derived from taxation, and the current expenditure. The balance between these is the cardinal item in finance, and should appear so that the eye cannot help reading it. That item for the last financial of the United States is as follows:—

<i>Revenue—</i>	£	£
Customs	35,809,330	
Land	133,006	
Direct tax	394,952	
Internal revenue.....	61,845,362	
Miscellaneous	13,423,875	
	—————	111,606,525
 <i>Expenditure—</i>		
Civil service	8,211,392	
Pensions and Indians!	3,770,481	
War department.....	56,889,940	
Navy „	8,664,827	
Interest on public debt	26,613,540	
	—————	104,150,180
 Balance		7,456,445

Note.—These figures are calculated at 4s. the dollar.

And this shows, probably, the most unexampled fact in financial history. That a Government which one year ago had no *internal* revenue at all, whose tax-gatherer never came to the homes, or intervened in the dealings of the people, should be able to raise 60,000,000*l.*, or any such sum, is a miracle. In any other country the bare attempt would have caused a revolution. But in America these taxes are borne as patiently as taxes are ever borne in any country. There is no more idea of resisting them, than of declaring a monarchy. No endeavour has been made to sweeten the impost by nicety of adjustment, or by delicate selection. Congress simply laid a tax on everything it could think of, and let it hit whom it could. Yet this financial decimation of the people excites little murmuring. The Americans are little apt to imagine that the acts of their Government can be tyrannical. They are the acts of the persons for whom they voted, of their agents, and there is no semblance of the bitter feeling which prevails in most countries at taxes imposed by a superior authority felt or fancied to be other than the people. The Americans, too, have the money; everybody is well off, and everybody seemingly wishes that the Government should be well off also.

“But this is not the whole of the retrospect which Mr. McCulloch is able to lay before us. He also gives us the quarter ending 30th September last. Thus:—

<i>Revenue—</i>	£	£
Customs	10,168,755	
Land	45,699	
Direct tax	68,091	
Internal revenue.....	19,833,398	
Miscellaneous sources.....	1,596,353	
	<hr/>	31,712,296
 <i>Expenditure—</i>		
Civil service	2,378,745	
Pensions	2,357,595	
War department.....	2,766,644	
Navy	1,575,722	
Interest on public debt	6,733,080	
	<hr/>	15,811,786
		<hr/>
		15,900,510
		<hr/>

“These results will not seem to many who have heard the superficial statement on the subject so good as they expected. An impression has gone abroad that 40,000,000*l.* has already been liquidated of the debt of the United States. But we are inclined to call Mr. McCulloch one of the bad advocates who impair a very good case by overstating it. In form, it is true that 40 millions sterling of American debt has been paid off since 31st August, 1865, when the debt was at its maximum point. But that payment was not made out of revenue. The United States, like many other people in extremity, overborrowed, and so had some money to pay back out of the produce of their loans. The whole funds applicable to the reduction of the debt from a legitimate surplus—from the real excess of revenue over expenditure—are shown in the above accounts. They are but 23,000,000*l.*

“Still, the financial condition indicated by these figures is very wonderful. If the United States could only raise revenue at the rate of the last quarter, they might have a surplus of 60,000,000*l.* by the 30th of June next. But, of course they will not continue to raise that revenue. Mr. McCulloch, as will be seen from the tables annexed to this article, proposes largely to reduce the taxation, and so to diminish the available surplus on the 30th June next to 31,000,000*l.* But it would be as reasonable to ask Mr. Gladstone what would be Mr. Disraeli’s budget, as to take Mr. McCulloch’s estimates to indicate the future policy of Congress. There are two great facts: one is the great fact of protection, tending to keep up the tariff by every means in its power, and eager to resist its reduction. The other is the natural impatience of taxation, which must tend to disincline men to pay to the highest and the most inconvenient taxes ever known. In appearance these two tendencies are opposed—the protectionist power will wish to maintain taxation; the anti-paying power, of course, will wish to abolish it. But in many branches of revenue the two may co-operate. Many branches of internal revenue are the equivalents of others in the customs revenue; and against these the wish not to pay taxes, and the wish to keep out foreign goods, will at once combine.

“Mr. McCulloch has excellent free-trade principles as far as he dares avow them. He lays down that each customs duty should have an equivalent excise duty. But his opinion is but speculative. By the present working of the American constitution no one person has the responsibility of, or the success of, the national finance.

The function is so distributed that you do not know where to find the duty. The Secretary of the Treasury writes a letter; Congress refers that letter to a committee; the chairman of that committee is generally influential, and carries much of what he wishes; the committee has considerable moral weight, and so, sinister interests, apart often carries what it wishes through Congress, and it becomes law if the President does not negative it. But the imperfection and complication are very plain. The Finance Minister says, 'I must have such and such moneys, and I propose to get them thus and thus.' Congress says, 'You need not have these moneys, and what funds you require you shall get in a different manner.' And in coming to this decision Congress is guided by a crowd of unknown persons; so that there is no real responsibility on any single person. Here the Chancellor of the Exchequer loses credit if the national balance is wrong; but the American nation cannot tell whom to blame if their finance is not satisfactory.

"Upon principle it is not desirable to reduce the amount of the American debt wildly, and as if there were no other comparable evil in the taxes which were imposed so rapidly. Some are very injurious to wholesome industry, and others so irritating that no other nation would think of bearing them. It is said that if the debt is to be reduced at all, it must be reduced largely. The *people* must be interested in the policy, and they can only be attracted by immediate and palpable effects. But we confess to a rooted distrust of *sensation* finance. If these taxes ought to be reduced, the tax-payers will before long prove that they shall be so. They will convince the rest of the nation, and the endeavour to enlist them in a career of liquidation by theatrical attractions will fail as it deserves. The oppressive and restrictive taxes ought to be taken off, and the remaining surplus only applied to the relief of debt. Of such injurious taxes, the worst in reality are the highest protective duties in the tariff. These are mere bribes, taking industry from its right task and sending it to a wrong task. They lessen the real wealth of America by forcing it to a needless labour. They take out of the pocket of the Americans far more than their Government obtains, because much of their yield goes to a fostered and subsidised industry. But we feel,—so natural is the doctrine of protection, so difficult and hard to learn is the seemingly simple doctrine of free trade,—that we must not expect these high tariff duties to be reduced, but, rather, we may be sure they are the very duties which the present Congress is sure to keep on.

"The most obvious features of American finance are two. First, the enormous power of a country which has attained a large population, but which has still the best opportunities of nature. The United States have still the best possible land, the best mines, the best things above ground, the best things under ground, and an educated Anglo-Saxon race to make use of all of them. Such means and materials for production, and such skill in making, the world has never seen together. In consequence, wealth is created faster than ever before, and the Government can tax it much more readily.

"Secondly, there is not only a facility in obtaining money, but also a facility of getting rid of men such as Europe does not know. In England, if the State engages an *employé*, as a rule it keeps or it pensions him. We could not hope to engage people by the hundred thousand, and dismiss them by the hundred thousand. A person who gives up anything here rarely gets anything else. But labour and skill are so valuable in America that everybody finds something to turn to. Almost the whole of their vast army has been mustered out and cast loose. The generals are managing railways; the officers are practising at the bar; the men are artisans and clerks; all are earning and thriving. There has been no parsimony in the Government; on the contrary they have voted 12,000,000*l.* sterling in 'back bounties,' that is in payment to early enlisters who did not get the full bounty which was given to those who came in at the eleventh hour, and partly we believe to negroes, who got little or nothing. We should like to hear Mr. Gladstone's reply to a discontented colonel who asked him to give 12,000,000*l.* to insufficiently paid and retiring soldiers. We should not pay so munificently any more than we could dismiss as carelessly.

“Much of Mr. McCulloch’s report is occupied with the state of the currency and the necessity of a resort to specie payments, but this we must reserve for future discussion. It is a great deal too delicate and involved to be dealt with at the conclusion of this article. Upon the whole the position of the taxation is plain. The revenue is ample and debt can be rapidly paid off, but as yet the political questions cannot be solved, how much debt will Congress decide to pay off and how much revenue will it consent to raise.”

MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

No. I.—ENGLAND AND WALES.

MARRIAGES IN THE QUARTER ENDED 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1866,
AND BIRTHS AND DEATHS IN THE QUARTER
ENDED 31ST DECEMBER, 1866.

The *Registers* of the UNITED KINGDOM show that the *births* of 246,519 children, and the *deaths* of 157,660 persons of both sexes, were registered in the three months ending on *December 31st*.

The marriages of the United Kingdom in the quarter ending *September 30th* were 56,883.

The death-rate of the United Kingdom is less than that prevailing in England and Wales. The several facts concerning the other divisions of the kingdom are set forth in the reports of the Registrar-General of Scotland and the Registrar-General of Ireland.

The resident population of England, Scotland, and Ireland, in the middle of 1866, is estimated at about 29,935,404. The corrected death-rate of the quarter is 2·163 per cent.

ENGLAND :—MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, and DEATHS, *returned in the Years* 1860-66, and in the *QUARTERS of those Years*.

Calendar YEARS, 1860-66 :—Numbers.

Years	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.	'60.
Marriages No.	—	185,520	180,387	173,510	164,030	163,706	170,156
<i>Births</i> ,	753,188	747,870	740,275	727,417	712,684	696,406	684,048
<i>Deaths</i> ,	500,938	491,360	495,531	473,837	436,566	435,114	422,721

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1860-66.

(I.) MARRIAGES :—*Numbers.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.	'60.
MarchNo.	37,576	36,835	37,988	35,528	33,953	33,274	35,150
June ,	48,523	45,772	44,599	44,146	40,853	42,012	43,777
Septmbr..... ,	46,196	45,863	44,675	41,932	40,600	39,884	40,541
Decmbr. ,	—	57,050	53,125	51,904	48,624	48,536	50,683

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1860–66.

(II.) BIRTHS:—Numbers.

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.	'60.
MarchNo.	196,737	194,287	192,947	186,341	181,990	172,933	183,180
June ,	192,459	192,921	188,835	189,340	185,554	184,820	174,028
Septmbr. ,	178,982	181,642	181,015	173,439	172,709	172,033	164,121
Decmbr. ,	185,010	179,020	177,478	178,297	172,431	166,620	162,719

(III.) DEATHS:—Numbers.

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.	'60.
MarchNo.	138,233	140,646	142,977	128,096	122,019	121,215	122,617
June ,	128,692	116,006	116,880	118,121	107,392	107,558	110,869
Septmbr. ,	116,826	113,404	112,223	112,504	92,381	101,232	86,312
Decmbr. ,	117,187	121,304	123,451	115,116	114,774	105,109	102,923

England.—This Return comprises the BIRTHS and DEATHS registered by 2,200 registrars in all the districts of England during the autumn quarter that ended on December 31st, 1866; and the MARRIAGES in 12,901 churches or chapels, about 5,515 registered places of worship unconnected with the Established Church, and 641 Superintendent Registrars' offices, in the quarter that ended on September 30th, 1866.

The birth-rate was unusually high, the death-rate below the average, the marriage-rate above the average. The aspect of these returns is favourable in every respect. Marriages have abounded, births have followed in unusual numbers, and deaths, in spite of an imminent epidemic, have been less frequent than in the corresponding seasons of former years. Hygienic measures have been prosecuted with unusual activity, and apparently with good results.

MARRIAGES.—There were married in the summer quarter (ended 30th September) 92,392 persons; against 89,350 and 91,726 in the two corresponding periods of 1864-65. Of marriages in London the number was 9,034. Lancashire exhibited a marked increase, the marriages in the last three summer quarters in the seat of cotton manufacture having been successively 6,534, 6,624, and 7,084. But while the marriage-rate prospered in the Manchester district, where the numbers in the three periods were 1,105, 1,200, and 1,278, it declined in Liverpool as the returns show; in the two previous summers 1,210 and 1,113 couples married, and last summer only 1,082.

If the marriage-rate in England that prevailed last summer were maintained for a year, the proportion, to the population, of persons who entered wedlock would be 1·726 per cent. against an average of 1·621. Seventeen marrying persons in a thousand of the population is a high annual rate for the first nine months; but it would be low if it occurred in the autumnal quarter, namely, the last three months of the year.

BIRTHS.—The number of children born last quarter (ended 31st December) was 185,010; it exceeded by 6,000 the number of births in the autumn of 1865. To this increase nearly the whole kingdom appears to have made more or less contribution; but in Cornwall there was a very striking decrease of births, for the number fell in that county from 3,056 to 2,647, a fact hardly to be accounted for except by active emigration.

ENGLAND:—*Annual Rates per Cent. of PERSONS MARRIED, BIRTHS, and DEATHS, during the YEARS 1860-66, and the QUARTERS of those Years.*

Calendar YEARS, 1860-66:—General Percentage Results.

YEARS	'66.	Mean '56-'65.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.	'60.
Estmtd. Popln. of England in thousands in middle of each Year....	21,210	—	20,991	20,772	20,554	20,336	20,119	19,903
Persons Mar- ried Perct. }	—	1·678	1·768	1·736	1·688	1·614	1·628	1·710
Births ,,	3·551	3·483	3·563	3·561	3·539	3·504	3·461	3·437
Deaths ,,	2·362	2·224	2·341	2·385	2·305	2·147	2·163	2·124

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1860-66.

(I.) PERSONS MARRIED :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'66.	Mean '56-'65.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.	'60.
March....Per ct.	1·442	1·398	1·428	1·472	1·408	1·360	1·346	1·422
June..... ,,	1·838	1·698	1·752	1·724	1·726	1·614	1·678	1·766
Septmbr. ,,	1·726	1·621	1·732	1·704	1·616	1·582	1·570	1·614
Decmbr. ,,	—	1·981	2·148	2·022	1·996	1·890	1·906	2·012

(II.) BIRTHS :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'66.	Mean '56-'65.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.	'60.
March....Per ct.	3·776	3·644	3·768	3·740	3·691	3·644	3·700	3·707
June.... ,,	3·644	3·620	3·691	3·651	3·700	3·665	3·690	3·512
Septmbr. ,,	3·344	3·343	3·429	3·453	3·343	3·365	3·388	3·267
Decmbr. ,,	3·447	3·322	3·370	3·376	3·428	3·350	3·272	3·230

(III.) DEATHS :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'66.	Mean '56-'65.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.	'60.
March....Per ct.	2·653	2·504	2·728	2·772	2·538	2·443	2·453	2·481
June..... ,,	2·437	2·186	2·220	2·260	2·308	2·121	2·147	2·237
Septmbr. ,,	2·182	2·002	2·141	2·141	2·169	1·800	1·994	1·718
Decmbr. ,,	2·184	2·205	2·284	2·349	2·213	2·230	2·064	2·043

The annual birth-rate in the quarter was high; it was 3·447 per cent. against an average of 3·322.

In thirteen large towns in the United Kingdom the births in the last quarter were relatively to population most numerous in Leeds, where the birth-rate per annum was as high as 4·318 per cent. In Sheffield the rate was not much lower, having been 4·198; in Glasgow it was 4·024; it did not touch 4 per cent. in Hull, but was 3·963; in Liverpool it was 3·873; in Salford 3·854; in Birmingham 3·739; in Newcastle-on-Tyne 3·624; in London 3·571; in Manchester and Edinburgh it slightly exceeded 3·5, and in Bristol did not attain that point.

INCREASE OF POPULATION.—The deaths last quarter were 117,187; and as the births were 185,010, the balance was in favour of population, and the natural increase 67,823.

The emigration* of the December quarter from ports in the United Kingdom, where emigration officers are stationed, comprised 32,909 persons; these being nearly as many as in the same period of 1864, but much fewer than in that of 1863 or 1865. Of that number about 11,351 were of English, 2,676 of Scotch, 14,666 of Irish origin. Giving round numbers, 26,000 out of the 33,000 were destined to the United States, of whom 7,000 were English, and 13,000 Irish. The main current of emigration being westward, Liverpool was the chosen port of embarkation to 21,000. Only 2,954 persons left the Thames. From London and Liverpool, emigrants for Australia went in nearly equal numbers.

PRICES, PAUPERISM, AND THE WEATHER.—The price of wheat has been constantly rising for two years; and in the last three months of 1866, when it was on an average 56s. 8d. per quarter, it was much higher than it had been since the September quarter of 1862. The average prices of beef by the carcase at Leadenhall and Newgate Markets were 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per lb. for inferior, and 7d. for superior qualities. They showed a slight tendency to decline from the high prices that had ruled in the summer. The prices of mutton fell; the lowest and highest averages were respectively 5 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. and 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; they were lower than they had been previously since the early part of 1865. Potatoes were dear. The mean price of the best at the Waterside Market, Southwark, was 107s. 6d. per ton. Prices ranged from 85s. to 130s., and were higher than they had been for three years.

The average number of in-door paupers relieved on the last day of each week was 133,979, a number which is more by five or six thousand than it had been in the corresponding period of either of the two previous years. Out-door paupers were 734,312 against 725,259 in the autumn of 1865.

The close of the September quarter was distinguished by much rain and the want of sunshine, and by south-west winds which had long prevailed. In the first week of October the barometer rose, the wind changed to north-east, and the mean temperature for eleven days was 3° above the average. This was followed by a week of cold weather. From 19th October to the end of the quarter the temperature was in excess without any considerable interruption, except from 28th November to 2nd December, in which period the weather was cold.

October closed with variable weather, sometimes with fog, at others with rain, and occasionally white frosts at night. In the beginning of November barometric pressure exhibited great fluctuations; snow fell in Scotland; and throughout the month the weather was changeable. In December there was frequent rain, and there were very heavy gales from the south-west; but the month was unusually mild for the season. The last two months were favourable for agricultural operations. In November ploughing and sowing made great progress, except in Yorkshire and Lancashire, where about the middle of the month were extensive floods; and at the end of the year the pastures were of a fresh green, and food for cattle was abundant.

* Return with which the Registrar-General has been favoured by the Emigration Commissioners: Of 32,909 emigrants the origin was undistinguished in 2,342 cases which have been distributed by calculation.

At Greenwich in each month the mean temperature was above the average. It was 51.3° in October, 44.3° in November, 42.9° in December; the mean of the quarter was 46.2° . Rain fell to the amount of 5.4 in. in the quarter, which is 1.7 in. below the average.

CONSOLS, PROVISIONS, PAUPERISM, and TEMPERATURE, in each of the Nine
QUARTERS ended 31st December, 1866.

1	2	3	4		5	6	7		8	9
Quarters ending	Average Price of Consols (for Money).	Average Price of Wheat per Quarter in England and Wales.	Average Prices of Meat per lb. at Leadenhall and Newgate Markets (by the Carcase), with the <i>Mean</i> Prices.		Average Prices of Potatoes (York Regents) per Ton at Waterside Market, Southwark.	Pauperism.		Quarterly Average of the Number of Paupers relieved on the <i>last day</i> of each week.	Mean Tem- pera- ture.	
			Beef.	Mutton.		In-door.	Out-door.			
1864 31 Dec.	£ 89 $\frac{5}{8}$	<i>s. d.</i> 38 5	<i>d. d. d.</i> 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ —7 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	<i>d. d. d.</i> 5 $\frac{1}{4}$ —7 $\frac{1}{4}$ 6 $\frac{1}{4}$	<i>s. s. s.</i> 80—95 87	128,322	771,879	43.7		
1865 31 Mar.	89 $\frac{3}{8}$	38 4	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ —7 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ —7 $\frac{1}{4}$ 6 $\frac{1}{4}$	85—97 91	142,329	813,371	36.5		
30 June	90 $\frac{6}{8}$	40 6	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ —6 $\frac{3}{4}$ 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	6 $\frac{1}{4}$ —8 $\frac{1}{2}$ 7 $\frac{3}{8}$	90—115 102	125,846	776,016	56.2		
30 Sept.	89 $\frac{6}{8}$	43 3	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ —7 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	6 $\frac{1}{4}$ —8 $\frac{3}{4}$ 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	65—100 85	117,172	719,589	62.5		
31 Dec.	88 $\frac{4}{8}$	44 10	4 $\frac{1}{4}$ —7 5 $\frac{5}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ —8 $\frac{1}{4}$ 6 $\frac{7}{8}$	60—90 75	129,036	725,259	46.0		
1866 31 Mar.	87	45 6	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ —6 $\frac{3}{4}$ 5 $\frac{5}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ —7 $\frac{3}{4}$ 6 $\frac{5}{8}$	55—90 72	139,546	759,402	41.2		
30 June	86 $\frac{4}{8}$	46 6	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ —7 5 $\frac{7}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ —8 $\frac{1}{2}$ 7	60—95 77	123,657	734,139	53.0		
30 Sept.	88 $\frac{3}{8}$	51 —	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ —7 $\frac{1}{4}$ 6 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ —8 $\frac{1}{4}$ 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	75—120 97	120,955	717,553	58.9		
31 Dec.	89 $\frac{4}{8}$	56 8	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ —7 5 $\frac{7}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ —7 $\frac{1}{2}$ 6 $\frac{3}{8}$	85—130 107	133,979	734,312	46.2		

DEATHS; AND THE STATE OF THE PUBLIC HEALTH.—117,187 deaths were registered in the 92 days ending on the last day of the old year, and the mortality was at the annual rate of 2.184. The mortality is thus lower than the average by .021, and not higher than the mortality of the last summer quarter, when it was raised by cholera in East London, in Liverpool, and in some other towns.

The chief characteristic of the season is the diffusion of cholera over the remotest parts of the kingdom, and its restricted ravages everywhere except where the people are living in the open violation of the laws of health. In London 834 deaths by cholera were returned, and in the districts around a small number: in Godstone 5, Dartford 1, Rochester 2, Lewes 6, Brighton 3, Southampton 2. In the Eastern and South-Midland counties the disease is scarcely noticed; in Devonshire, Exeter and its environs suffered to some extent; thus, 8 persons died of the disease in St. Leonard; 30 in Kenton, including 26 in the county lunatic asylum. The 8

deaths in St. Leonard occurred close to the river Exe, which receives all the sewage of Exeter, and is dammed up by a weir at the fatal point. The deaths in the lunatic asylum demand explanation. Teignmouth on the coast had 7 deaths from cholera; Brixham, the fishing town at the entrance of Torbay, supplied with bad water, 30; a small parish in the Crediton district called Zeal-Monachorum, on a tributary of the Tay, 15; St. George in Bedminster 12. These isolated outbreaks were rendered fatal by local causes. In the midland counties of the north and west a few deaths are noticed. In Chester (Great Boughton) 83 deaths from cholera, 42 from diarrhœa occurred; the water with singular irrationality having been for some time taken at a point in the river immediately below the inflow of several of the town sewers. Cholera, which had been so fatal in Liverpool, subsided after having caused many deaths, and the epidemic caused 30 deaths in the township of Ince, where the water was bad, but scarcely touched Manchester or Salford. In Doncaster, with sewage in the waters, it raised the mortality above the average. Three fatal cases of cholera occurred at Beverley; the first case, that of a man, was imported; the others were respectively the wife who had attended the man, and the wife's sister by whom the wife had been attended. Due precautions should be inculcated in such cases. Hull and Sculcoates, which in former epidemics suffered so severely, now escaped with comparative impunity. In many towns and colliery villages of Durham and Northumberland cases of cholera occurred in considerable numbers; 107 persons died of cholera in Tynemouth and 27 of diarrhœa. The hygienic conditions are of the worst description and the authorities often appear to slumber in the presence of danger. While the industry of Wales is making rapid strides, its sanitary condition is rapidly deteriorating, as due arrangements are not made for the accommodation or instruction of an increasing population; and thus in a country every way by nature favourable to health, both as regards air and water, epidemics find footing and prove destructive. In Tredegar sub-district 82 persons died of cholera; in Ystradfydwg 24; in Aberdare 29; in Ystradgunlais 50; in Llangafelach 31; in Swansea 55; in Holywell, where a well was polluted with sewage, 39; in Carnarvon 70; in Holyhead 25. Following fevers and other zymotic diseases there can be no question of the evil, which may well attract the attention of Welsh patriotism.

Average Annual Rate of Mortality to 1,000 of the Population in the Eleven Divisions of England in the Ten Years 1851-60; in the Year 1866; in the Autumn Quarter of 1865; and in the Winter, Spring, Summer, and Autumn Quarters of 1866.

Divisions.	Average Annual Rate of Mortality to 1,000 Living in						
	Ten Years, 1851-60.	1865.	1866.				
		Autumn Quarter.	Year.	Winter Quarter.	Spring Quarter.	Summer Quarter.	Autumn Quarter.
I. London	23·63	24·05	26·30	26·66	25·29	28·86	24·38
II. South-Eastern counties	19·55	19·44	19·42	21·85	19·81	18·11	17·90
III. South Midland „	20·44	20·79	20·14	22·85	21·03	17·62	19·07
IV. Eastern counties	20·58	19·60	20·13	23·19	21·61	18·10	17·62
V. South-Western counties	20·01	18·81	20·38	23·85	21·86	17·30	18·52
VI. West Midland „	22·35	21·89	22·01	26·54	24·16	17·48	19·84
VII. North Midland „	21·10	20·55	20·77	24·01	22·58	17·58	18·89
VIII. North-Western „	25·51	28·93	29·21	33·84	28·74	27·31	26·96
IX. Yorkshire	23·09	24·86	25·63	29·60	27·59	22·03	23·28
X. Northern counties	21·99	23·03	23·90	24·43	23·95	21·95	25·27
XI. Monmouthshire and Wales	21·28	20·41	22·79	23·92	23·45	22·31	21·49

The returns contain many examples of the efficacy of hygienic measures, and afford strong proofs of the doctrine that if England has suffered less from cholera in the present year than the Continent, or less than England herself in former years, it is mainly due to changes which all Europe can appreciate and adopt.

Among other instances the Black country, as it is called, about Wolverhampton may be cited. The epidemics of 1849 and 1854 destroyed in five districts more than three thousand lives, while in the year 1866 the mortality has been inconsiderable. The water was formerly impure and could only be obtained with difficulty in a country covered with pits and works. But the people with commendable energy have brought good waters from a distance, and are reaping the advantages of the change in Wolverhampton, Bilston, and the other towns.

ANNUAL RATE of MORTALITY per Cent. in TOWN and COUNTRY DISTRICTS of ENGLAND in each Quarter of the Years 1866-64.

	Area in Statute Acres.	Population Enumerated. 1861.	Quarters ending	Annual Rate of Mortality per Cent. in each Quarter of the Years			
				1866.	Mean '56-65.	1865.	1864.
In 142 Districts, and 56 Sub-districts, comprising the <i>Chief Towns</i>	3,287,151	10,930,841	March ..	2·967	2·680	2·881	2·980
			June	2·641	2·322	2·339	2·412
			Sept.	2·515	2·237	2·387	2·386
			Dec.	2·432	2·460	2·564	2·615
			Year	2·639	2·425	2·543	2·598
In the remaining Districts and Sub- districts of Eng- land and Wales, comprising chiefly <i>Small Towns</i> and <i>Country Parishes</i> }	34,037,732	9,135,383	Year	2·010	1·989	2·080	2·107
			March ..	2·252	2·295	2·514	2·512
			June	2·170	2·024	2·049	2·070
			Sept.	1·755	1·736	1·828	1·833
			Dec.	1·863	1·901	1·927	2·014

Note.—The three months, January, February, March, contain 90, in leap year 91 days; the three months, April, May, June, 91 days; each of the last two quarters of the year 92 days. For this inequality a correction has been made in the calculations, also for the difference between 365 and 365·25 days, and 366 and 365·25 days in leap year.

The mortality in all the country districts of England was at the rate of 19; in the town districts at the rate of 24, in 1,000; but in both town and country below the average in nearly an equal degree. In the divisions the mortality of the quarter was lowest (18) in the eastern and south-eastern counties; highest in the northern counties (25), and in Lancashire and Cheshire (27), where the rate exceeded that of London (24).

The thirteen great towns of the United Kingdom stand thus arranged in the order of mortality for the quarter: Bristol 21, Birmingham 22, Hull 23, London 24, Sheffield 24, Salford 26, Leeds 28, Glasgow 29, Manchester 30, Edinburgh 30, Liverpool 33, Dublin 34, Newcastle-on-Tyne 37.

POPULATION ; BIRTHS, DEATHS ; MEAN TEMPERATURE *and* RAINFALL *in last Autumn*
Quarter, in Thirteen Large Towns.

Cities, &c.	Estimated Population in the Middle of the Year 1866.	Births in 13 Weeks ending 29th Dec., 1866.	Deaths in 13 Weeks ending 29th Dec., 1866.	Annual Rate to 1,000 Living during the 13 Weeks ending 29th Dec., 1866.		Mean Temperature in 13 Weeks ending 29th Dec., 1866.	Rainfall in Inches in 13 Weeks ending 29th Dec., 1866.
				Births.	Deaths.		
Total of 13 large towns....	6,122,894	55,173	40,272	36·34	26·53	45·9	8·0
London	3,067,536	27,033	18,456	35·71	24·38	46·6	5·4
Bristol (city)	163,680	1,412	864	34·62	21·19	47·7	9·3
Birmingham (borough)....	335,798	3,128	1,815	37·39	21·69	46·1	6·4
Liverpool (borough)	484,337	4,674	4,000	38·73	33·15	48·9	4·7
Manchester (city)	358,855	3,138	2,644	35·10	29·57	45·1	12·1
Salford (borough)	112,904	1,084	736	38·54	26·16	45·9	12·1
Sheffield (borough)	218,257	2,283	1,329	41·98	24·44	45·0	8·2
Leeds (borough).....	228,187	2,455	1,617	43·18	28·44	45·7	8·9
Hull (borough)	105,233	1,039	602	39·63	22·96	—	—
Newcastle - on - Tyne } (borough)	122,277	1,104	1,118	36·24	36·70	44·2	4·7
Edinburgh (city)	175,128	1,530	1,303	35·07	29·86	44·7	6·0
Glasgow (city)	432,265	4,334	3,122	40·24	28·99	44·7	13·1
Dublin (city and some } suburbs)	318,437	1,959	2,666	24·69	33·60	46·0	4·7

THE YEAR 1866.

In the United Kingdom 1,013,070 births and 665,859 deaths were registered in the twelve months, thus making the natural increase 347,211, or at the rate of 951 daily. The recorded number of emigrants was 204,882, or 561 daily. The difference between the emigrants and the registered natural increase was 390 daily.

The birth-rate per 1,000 of the year was 35·47, the death-rate 23·03, for the United Kingdom, after a correction for the defective registration of Ireland.*

The birth-rate per 1,000 of England proper was 35·51, the death-rate 23·62, the numbers for the previous year, 1865, are 35·63 and 23·41 ; the shade of excess in the death-rate of 1866 being due to cholera, for the mortality is lower in all the divisions except those in which cholera prevailed.

The eleven divisions may be thus arranged in the order of annual mortality : the deaths per 1,000 were in the south-eastern counties 19, eastern counties 20, south-midland counties 20, south-western counties 20, north-midland counties 21, west-midland counties 22, Monmouthshire and Wales 23, northern counties 24, Yorkshire 26, London 26, north-western counties (Lancashire and Cheshire) 29.

* In calculating the birth-rate and death-rate, one-third has been added to the births, one-fourth to the deaths registered in Ireland ; so that, while the registered births and deaths are 1,013,070 and 665,859, the estimated numbers corrected for defective registration in Ireland become 1,061,819 and 689,273. The natural increase on the corrected numbers was 1,020 daily, and the difference between the emigrants and the natural increase on the corrected numbers was 459 daily.

ENGLAND: — MARRIAGES *Registered in Quarters ended 30th September 1866-64; and BIRTHS and DEATHS in Quarters ended 31st December, 1866-64.*

1 DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	2 AREA in Statute Acres.	3 POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	4 5 6 MARRIAGES in Quarters ended 30th September.		
			'66.	'65.	'64.
ENGLD. & WALES....Totals	37,324,883	No. 20,066,224	No. 46,196	No. 45,863	No. 44,675
I. London	77,997	2,803,989	9,034	8,982	8,581
II. South-Eastern	4,065,935	1,817,661	3,896	3,696	3,689
III. South Midland	3,201,290	1,295,515	2,292	2,334	2,214
IV. Eastern	3,214,099	1,142,562	1,750	1,851	1,702
V. South-Western	4,993,660	1,835,714	3,267	3,374	3,253
VI. West Midland	3,865,332	2,436,568	5,280	5,307	5,332
VII. North Midland	3,540,797	1,288,928	2,493	2,356	2,435
VIII. North-Western.....	2,000,227	2,935,540	8,073	7,644	7,597
IX. Yorkshire	3,654,636	2,015,541	5,001	5,070	4,801
X. Northern	3,492,322	1,151,372	2,527	2,734	2,464
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	5,218,588	1,312,834	2,583	2,615	2,607

7 DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	8 9 10 BIRTHS in Quarters ended 31st December.			11 12 13 DEATHS in Quarters ended 31st December.		
	'66.	'65.	'64.	'66.	'65.	'64.
ENGLD. & WALES....Totals	No. 185,010	No. 179,020	No. 177,478	No. 117,187	No. 121,304	No. 123,451
I. London	27,033	26,544	25,677	18,456	18,393	19,788
II. South-Eastern	16,552	15,577	15,172	8,945	9,595	9,438
III. South Midland	11,233	10,772	10,716	6,400	6,942	7,521
IV. Eastern	9,270	8,925	9,211	5,147	5,711	6,062
V. South-Western	14,147	14,162	14,214	8,657	8,775	9,572
VI. West Midland	23,218	22,284	22,304	13,115	14,284	15,297
VII. North Midland.....	11,266	10,853	10,961	6,340	6,858	6,883
VIII. North-Western.....	28,377	27,624	27,176	21,880	23,097	20,675
IX. Yorkshire	20,436	19,545	19,401	12,644	13,340	13,228
X. Northern	12,071	11,639	11,598	8,078	7,234	6,911
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	11,407	11,095	11,048	7,525	7,075	8,076

REMARKS ON THE WEATHER

DURING THE QUARTER ENDING 31ST DECEMBER, 1866.

By JAMES GLAISHER, ESQ., F.R.S., &c., *Secretary of the Meteorological Society.*

The last quarter closed with an excess of rain, a great absence of sunshine, and long continuance of south-west winds. In the first week of this quarter the wind changed to north-east, the atmospheric pressure increased to above its average, having been long below it. The temperature of the air till the 11th day of October was in excess to the average daily amount of 3° ; a short period of cold weather set in and continued for a week, the deficiency of temperature below the average amounting to $3\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ daily. From this time, 19th October, to the end of the quarter the temperature was generally in excess, with, however, a few exceptions, in which for a few days together the weather was cold, the longest of these periods was from 28th November to 2nd December, during which the temperature was on the average $5\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ too low daily. The average daily temperature of the 74 days ending 31st December was $1^{\circ}9$ or nearly 2° in excess.

The month of October closed with variable weather, partly foggy and raining, with occasional white frosts at night.

At the beginning of November the fluctuations in the barometric pressure were very great, snow fell in Scotland and the weather was changeable throughout the month.

The month of December began with low temperature and barometric pressure, with great and frequent variations of pressure within short periods, very heavy gales of wind from the south-west; rain fell frequently and above the average in amount at most places, and the month was unusually mild for the season.

By the end of October the general harvest was completed; a small portion of the crops in the furthest north were not gathered till towards the end of November.

In November the operation of ploughing and sowing made great progress everywhere, except in Yorkshire and Lancashire, where the land was flooded to a great extent about the middle of the month and stopped all progress. In the month there were many complaints about the potato disease, and it was stated that a large portion of the crop had been destroyed. In December it was stated that the early sown wheat appeared generally healthy; there was an abundance of food for cattle, and at the end of the year the meadows and pastures wore a fresh green hue, more like their usual appearance in spring than at the end of the year.

The month was favourable for agricultural operations.

At GREENWICH the mean temperature of October was $51^{\circ}3$, being $1^{\circ}6$ above the average of the preceding 95 years, $0^{\circ}8$ above the average of 25 years, and higher than any year since 1863, when the temperature was $51^{\circ}6$.

The mean temperature of November was $44^{\circ}3$ being $1^{\circ}9$ above the average of the preceding 95 years, $0^{\circ}3$ above the average of 25 years, and $1^{\circ}5$ below that of last year.

The mean temperature of December was $42^{\circ}9$, being $3^{\circ}8$ above the average of the preceding 95 years, $2^{\circ}5$ above the average of 25 years, and higher than any year since 1863, when the temperature was $43^{\circ}2$.

The mean high day temperatures for October was below the average to the

amount of 0°5, and those for November and December were above the averages to the respective amounts of 1°3 and 2°3.

The mean low night temperatures for the three months were above the averages to the respective amounts of 1°6, 0°5, and 1°7.

Therefore the days were cold and the nights were warm in October, but the days and nights were both warm in November and December.

The daily range of temperature was 2°1 below its average in October, and November and December were above the averages to the respective amounts of 0°8 and 0°7.

The fall of rain for the three months was below the average to the respective amounts of 0·7 in., 0·9 in., and 0·1 in.

The mean temperature of the air at Greenwich in the three months ending November, constituting the three autumn months, was 50°7, being 0°1 above the average of the preceding 25 years.

1866. Months.		Temperature of										Elastic Force of Vapour.		Weight of Vapour in a Cubic Foot of Air.	
		Air.			Evaporation.		Dew Point.		Air— Daily Range.		Water of the Thames				
		Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 95 Years.	Diff. from Aver- age of 25 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 25 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 25 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 25 Years.		Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 25 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 25 Years.
Oct.	51·3	+1·6	+0·8	49·8	+1·3	48·2	+1·8	12·5	-2·1	55·0	·338	+·022	3·8	+0·1	
Nov.	44·3	+1·9	+0·3	42·2	+0·5	39·7	-0·2	12·5	+0·8	45·3	·244	-·008	2·8	0·0	
Dec.	42·9	+3·8	+2·5	41·3	+2·4	39·3	+2·2	10·2	+0·7	42·2	·240	+·017	2·8	+0·2	
Mean.....	46·2	+2·4	+1·2	44·4	+1·4	42·4	+1·3	11·7	-0·2	47·5	·274	+·010	3·1	+0·1	

1866. Months.		Degree of Humidity.		Reading of Barometer.		Weight of a Cubic Foot of Air.		Rain.		Daily Hori- zontal Move- ment of the Air.	Reading of Thermometer on Grass.				
		Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 25 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 25 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 25 Years.	Amnt.	Diff. from Aver- age of 51 Years.		Number of Nights it was			Low- est Read- ing at Night.	High- est Read- ing at Night.
											At or below 30°.	Be- tween 30° and 40°.	Above 40°.		
Oct.	90	+ 3	In. 29·933	+·247	Gr. 542	+ 4	In. 2·1	-0·7	Miles. 186	3	11	17	o 24·8	o 54·3	
Nov.	84	- 5	29·792	+·044	548	+ 1	1·5	-0·9	333	12	14	4	21·1	46·9	
Dec.	87	- 1	29·790	-·042	549	- 3	1·8	-0·1	340	11	16	4	21·0	49·7	
Mean.....	87	- 1	29·838	-·083	546	+ 1	Sum 5·4	Sum -1·7	Mean 286	Sum 26	Sum 41	Sum 25	Lowest 21·0	Highest 54·3	

Note.—In reading this table it will be borne in mind that the sign (–) minus signifies below the average, and that the sign (+) plus signifies above the average.

Thunder was heard but lightning was not seen on the 24th of November at Wisbeach. On the 7th of December at Guernsey; on the 15th at Cockermouth; and on the 30th at Helstone.

ENGLAND:—*Meteorological Table, Quarter ended 31st December, 1866.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
NAMES OF STATIONS.	Mean Pressure of Dry Air reduced to the Level of the Sea.	Highest Reading of the Thermo- meter.	Lowest Reading of the Thermo- meter.	Range of Tem- perature in the Quarter.	Mean Monthly Range of Tem- perature.	Mean Daily Range of Tem- perature.	Mean Tem- perature of the Air.	Mean Degree of Hu- midity.
	in.	°	°	°	°	°	°	
Guernsey	29·727	65·5	33·0	32·5	22·6	6·7	50·4	88
Barnstaple	29·972	70·0	32·0	38·0	31·8	10·5	50·2	85
Osborne	29·645	71·5	29·0	42·5	31·5	11·4	48·5	86
Royal Observatory	29·744	68·1	26·5	41·6	32·9	11·7	46·2	87
Royston	29·737	74·0	26·8	47·2	34·7	12·4	46·0	86
Lampeter	29·724	72·5	27·4	45·1	31·8	12·0	47·4	86
Diss (Norfolk) ...	29·698	77·5	22·0	55·5	39·2	12·6	46·7	82
Derby	29·690	66·0	28·0	38·0	31·3	12·0	45·3	85
Manchester	29·690	66·8	27·0	39·8	33·5	13·6	44·8	85
Wakefield	29·773	62·7	16·7	46·0	38·2	11·8	45·4	84
Stonyhurst	29·643	65·0	15·6	49·4	33·3	10·7	45·0	87
North Shields ...	29·691	57·8	27·5	30·3	26·3	8·1	44·0	83

10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
NAMES OF STATIONS.	WIND.					Mean Amount of Cloud.	RAIN.	
	Mean estimated Strength.	Relative Proportion of					Number of Days on which it fell.	Amount collected.
		N.	E.	S.	W.			
								in.
Guernsey	4·5	7	6	8	10	5·9	43	7·2
Barnstaple	1·1	5	6	7	13	4·7	59	11·5
Osborne	0·5	5	5	9	12	6·3	44	5·5
Royal Observatory	0·6	5	4	10	12	6·9	41	5·4
Royston	—	6	2	9	14	6·5	49	5·5
Lampeter	0·7	4	5	11	11	7·7	58	9·8
Diss (Norfolk) ...	1·0	4	5	11	11	6·3	—	—
Derby	—	4	5	7	15	—	53	8·3
Manchester	—	4	6	12	8	7·4	57	12·4
Wakefield	1·7	5	4	9	13	6·9	56	9·1
Stonyhurst	0·7	7	5	6	13	7·6	57	20·7
North Shields ...	1·5	8	3	6	13	5·1	46	5·8

No. II.—SCOTLAND.

MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS IN THE QUARTER

ENDED 31ST DECEMBER, 1866.

Scotland, for the purposes of registration, is divided into 1,014 districts; and this return comprises the BIRTHS, DEATHS, and MARRIAGES registered in these districts (with the exception of the inaccessible island of St. Kilda) during the quarter ending 31st December, 1866. From these it would appear that births, deaths, and marriages have all been above the average of the corresponding quarter of the ten previous years.

BIRTHS.—27,765 births were registered in Scotland during the fourth quarter of 1866, being in the annual proportion of 352 births in every 10,000 persons of the estimated population. This is considerably above the average proportion of the quarter during ten previous years, which only yielded the proportion of 338 births in every 10,000 persons. In England, also, during the same period, the births were above their average; for 185,010 births were registered during the fourth quarter, indicating an annual proportion of 344 births in every 10,000 persons of the estimated population; the mean of the corresponding quarters in the ten previous years being only 332 births in a like population.

The town and rural districts of Scotland exhibited the usual difference in the proportion of their births. Thus, in the 126 town districts (which embrace towns with populations of 3,000 and upwards at the census of 1861), 16,223 births were registered; while in the 888 rural districts (embracing the remainder of the population of Scotland), only 11,542 births occurred; thus indicating an annual proportion of 348 births in every 10,000 persons in the town districts, but only 315 births in a like population in the rural districts.

TABLE I.—*Proportion of Illegitimate in every Hundred Births in the Divisions and Counties of Scotland, during the Quarter ending 31st December, 1866.*

Divisions.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.
SCOTLAND	10·0						
Northern	5·4	Shetland ...	5·4	Forfar	11·7	Lanark	8·9
North-Western	5·6	Orkney	3·0	Perth	9·7	Linlithgow .	10·7
North-Eastern	15·3	Caithness ...	6·0	Fife	8·5	Edinburgh .	9·3
East Midland ..	10·2	Sutherland..	6·9	Kinross	3·8	Haddington	10·1
West Midland.	8·2	Ross and }	4·1	Clackman- }	8·1	Berwick	17·2
South-Western	8·8	Cromarty }		nan		Peebles	15·7
South-Eastern.	10·3	Inverness ...	6·9	Stirling	8·4	Selkirk	11·0
Southern	15·5	Nairn	7·8	Dumbarton ..	8·7	Roxburgh ..	12·6
		Elgin	12·8	Argyll	7·5	Dumfries ...	16·8
		Banff	18·6	Bute	8·2	Kirkeud- }	15·6
		Aberdeen	15·2	Renfrew	7·4	bright .. }	
		Kincardine..	15·3	Ayr	9·6	Wigtown ...	17·0

Of the 27,765 children born during the quarter, 24,984 were legitimate, and 2,781 illegitimate; thus indicating that 10 per cent. of the children were illegitimate at birth. As usual, the proportion of illegitimate children was highest in the

rural districts, 10·5 per cent. of the births being illegitimate in them, while only 9·6 per cent. were illegitimate in the town districts. Table I. exhibits the percentage of illegitimate births in the several divisions and counties of Scotland, and generally accords with previous returns, the counties included in the north-eastern and southern divisions showing by far the highest proportion of illegitimate births.

Of the children born during the quarter, 14,183 were males, and 13,582 females, indicating that 104·4 boys were born for every 100 girls.

9,665 births were registered in October, 8,742 in November and 9,358 in December; being at the rate of 312 births daily during October, 291 daily during November, and 302 daily during December.

DEATHS.—18,191 deaths were registered in Scotland during the fourth quarter of 1866, being in the annual proportion of 530 deaths in every 10,000 persons of the estimated population. This is a high proportion of deaths, the average of the quarter during the ten previous years, being only 210 deaths in every 10,000 persons. In fact, this is the highest proportion of deaths during the fourth quarter which has occurred since the Registration Act came into operation, with the single exception of that of 1863, when the proportion was 232 deaths in every 10,000 persons.

In England, during the fourth quarter of 1866, the deaths were under the average of the ten previous years, and this proportion was considerably below that of the corresponding quarter of the years 1857, 1858, 1862, 1864, and 1865. Thus, only 117,187 deaths were registered in England during the fourth quarter of 1866, being at the annual rate of 218 deaths in every 10,000 persons, the ten years' average of the corresponding quarter giving a proportion of 220 deaths in every 10,000 persons.

The deaths in the town districts showed their usual excess over those in the rural districts. Thus, in the 126 town districts, 11,673 deaths were registered, but only 6,518 deaths in the 888 rural districts; indicating an annual proportion of 276 deaths in every 10,000 persons in the town, but only that of 177 deaths in a like population in the rural districts.

Of the deaths, 5,670 were registered during October, 6,162 during November, and 6,359 during December; being at the rate of 183 deaths daily during October, 205 daily during November, and 205 daily during December.

INCREASE OF THE POPULATION.—As the births numbered 27,765, and the deaths 18,191, the natural increase of the population by births was 9,574. From that number ought to be deducted all the Scottish emigrants. From a return furnished to the Registrar-General by the Emigration Commissioners, it appears that 32,909 persons emigrated from the ports of Great Britain and Ireland at which are emigration officers, of which number 13,628 were ascertained to be of Irish origin, 10,533 of English, 2,510 of Scottish, while 3,897 were foreigners, and in 2,342 the nationality was not ascertained. If 127 be allowed as the Scottish proportion of those whose origin was not ascertained, the total Scottish emigrants would amount to 2,637; and that number deducted from the excess of births over deaths, would leave 6,937 as the increase of the population during the quarter, making no allowance for the considerable emigration which goes on from the other ports of Scotland, nor for the migration to England and Ireland, drafts to the army, navy, &c.

MARRIAGES.—6,894 marriages were registered in Scotland during the fourth quarter of 1866, being in the annual proportion of 87 marriages in every 10,000 persons of the estimated population. The average proportion of marriages for the corresponding quarter during the ten previous years, was 84 marriages in every 10,000 persons, so that the marriage-rate has been considerably above its average.

In the 126 town districts 4,195 marriages were registered, but only 2,699 in the 888 rural districts; indicating a proportion of 99 marriages in every 10,000 persons in the town, but only 73 marriages in a like population in the rural districts.

Of the 6,894 marriages, 1,509 were registered in October, 2,256 in November, and 3,129 in December.

TABLE II.—*Number of Births, Deaths, and Marriages in Scotland, and in the Town and Country Districts during the Quarter ending 31st December, 1866, and their Proportion to the Population; also the Number of Illegitimate Births, and their Proportion to the Total Births.*

	Population.		Total Births.			Illegitimate Births.		
	Census, 1861.	Estimated, 1866.	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every
SCOTLAND	3,062,294	3,153,413	27,765	3·52	428	2,781	10·0	9·9
126 town districts	1,603,875	1,688,288	16,223	3·84	26	1,566	9·6	10·3
888 rural „	1,458,419	1,465,125	11,542	3·15	31	1,215	10·5	9·5

	Population.		Deaths.			Marriages.		
	Census, 1861.	Estimated, 1866.	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every
SCOTLAND	3,062,294	3,153,413	18,191	2·30	43	6,894	0·87	114
126 town districts	1,603,875	1,688,288	11,673	2·76	36	4,195	0·99	100
888 rural „	1,458,419	1,465,125	6,518	1·77	56	2,699	0·73	135

HEALTH OF THE POPULATION.—The circumstance of the death-rate having been so high, and this without any great lowering of the temperature during November or December to account for it, proves of itself that the health of the population has not been good during the fourth quarter of the year 1866. The increased mortality would appear to have been principally caused by the prevalence of three diseases, viz. cholera, scarlatina, and fever, in its varied forms of typhus (or spotted fever), typhoid (or enteric and gastro-enteric), and simple continued fever. Scarlatina and fever seem to have prevailed pretty universally over Scotland; but from the returns as yet received, cholera seems to have confined its ravages to twelve counties. The registrars' returns on this point are, however, defective, as the registrars of several districts where cholera was known to be prevalent made no return of the cases or deaths from that disease. As 891 deaths from cholera have already been reported, allowing for those yet to be received, it would appear that the deaths from cholera in Scotland during 1866 amounted to less than 1,000. The disease seemed to have died out everywhere by the close of the year; but as it has broken out again at a few points in Scotland, England, and on the Continent, during the severe wintry weather in January, we cannot yet consider ourselves free from its attacks. It is a somewhat remarkable fact, that almost everywhere in Scotland where it has shown a tendency to localize itself, the water used by the people has been found to be more or less impregnated with decaying organic matters.

TABLE III.—*Number of Births, Deaths, and Marriages in Scotland, and their Proportion to the Population, Estimated to the Middle of each Year, during each Quarter of the Years 1866 to 1862 inclusive.*

	1866.		1865.		1864.		1863.		1862.	
	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.
1st Quarter—										
Births	28,876	3·66	28,608	3·65	28,177	3·61	26,733	3·44	27,089	3·51
Deaths	19,075	2·42	20,786	2·65	22,576	2·89	19,229	2·47	19,420	2·51
Marriages ..	5,627	0·71	5,407	0·69	5,333	0·68	5,126	0·66	4,763	0·62
Mean Temperature }	38°·0		35°·3		35°·7		40°·9		38°·8	
2nd Quarter—										
Births	29,801	3·78	30,332	3·86	29,992	3·84	29,655	3·82	28,728	3·73
Deaths	18,556	2·85	17,066	2·17	18,445	2·36	17,963	2·31	17,385	2·25
Marriages ..	6,019	0·76	5,698	0·72	5,710	0·73	5,594	0·71	5,185	0·67
Mean Temperature }	49°·3		51°·5		49°·9		49°·0		49°·4	
3rd Quarter—										
Births	27,197	3·45	27,320	3·48	27,063	3·47	26,366	3·40	25,783	3·34
Deaths	15,451	1·95	15,907	2·02	16,131	2·06	16,273	2·09	14,235	1·84
Marriages ..	5,089	0·64	5,335	0·68	4,993	0·64	4,900	0·62	4,570	0·59
Mean Temperature }	54°·4		57°·5		54°·5		53°·9		54°·4	
4th Quarter—										
Births	27,765	3·52	26,866	3·42	27,213	3·49	26,587	3·42	25,469	3·30
Deaths	18,191	2·30	17,072	2·17	17,151	2·19	18,016	2·32	16,155	2·09
Marriages ..	6,894	0·87	7,137	0·91	6,639	0·85	6,614	0·84	6,079	0·78
Mean Temperature }	43°·5		43°·4		42°·0		43°·6		42°·0	
Year—										
Population.	3,153,413		3,136,057		3,118,701		3,101,345		3,083,989	
Births	113,639	3·60	113,126	3·60	112,445	3·60	109,341	3·52	107,069	3·47
Deaths	71,273	2·26	70,821	2·25	74,303	2·38	71,481	2·30	67,195	2·17
Marriages ..	23,629	0·75	23,577	0·75	22,675	0·72	22,234	0·71	20,597	0·66

WEATHER.—The weather which prevailed during the quarter was unusually mild, in consequence of the westerly and south-westerly winds having been more prevalent than usual; and, with one break from the 17th to the 19th of November, when the wind changed to the east and north, and snow fell, and smart frost occurred, this mild weather continued to the 30th of December.

As a general rule, the number of deaths in Scotland during the colder months is greatly regulated by the temperature, independent altogether of the diseases which may be prevailing among the population; and as the months progressively decrease in temperature, the deaths increase. Accordingly, though September, with its mean temperature of 51°·4, had 157 deaths daily, October with its lower

temperature of $48^{\circ}6$, had 183 deaths daily, and November, with its still lower mean temperature of $41^{\circ}2$, had 205 deaths daily. December is usually colder than November, and its deaths higher; but during the whole month, excepting its two closing days, its mean temperature was the same as that of November, and its mean daily deaths were absolutely the same in number, viz. 205 daily. Even including these two frosty days, the mean temperature of December was only half of a degree of temperature lower than November. The above striking facts prove how closely the temperature regulates the mortality in Scotland.

During the beginning of October, at which period cholera threatened to spread, the weather had very much the same characteristics as in previous outbreaks of that disease. Thick mists occurred almost every day. The atmosphere was close and oppressive, overloaded with moisture, cloudy, and perspiration was induced with the slightest exertion. This kind of weather was especially observable on the eastern side of the island, and it was on that side of Scotland that by far the greatest number of cases of cholera occurred. It is a remarkable fact, however, as showing how much all diseases, when once induced in Scotland, are aggravated by cold, that in one district, where cholera was very prevalent, five times as many cases and deaths occurred during the week when frost occurred for four successive days,—the lowest temperatures on these days ranging from 27° to 29° Fahr.

The mean barometric pressure, reduced to the sea-level and to 32° Fahr., was 30.047 inches in October, 29.753 inches in November, and 29.672 in December. The mean temperature of the quarter was $43^{\circ}5$; that of October being $48^{\circ}6$, of November $41^{\circ}2$, and of December $40^{\circ}6$. The highest temperature in the shade at any station was $69^{\circ}3$ in October, $59^{\circ}3$ in November, and 66° in December. The absolute lowest temperature was 22° in October, $18^{\circ}5$ in November, and 15° in December. The mean daily range of temperature was $11^{\circ}3$ in October, $10^{\circ}1$ in November, and $9^{\circ}5$ in December. The mean degree of humidity was 90 in October, 87 in November, and 89 in December. Rain fell on 49 days during the quarter, with a mean depth of 12.08 inches of water.

SCOTLAND:—MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, and DEATHS Registered in the Quarter ended 31st December, 1866.

1	2	3	4	5	6
DIVISIONS. (Scotland)	AREA in Statute Acres.	POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
		No.	No.	No.	No.
SCOTLAND Totals	19,639,377	3,062,294	6,894	27,765	18,191
I. Northern	2,261,622	130,422	255	903	451
II. North-Western	4,739,876	167,329	210	1,235	694
III. North-Eastern	2,429,594	366,783	803	3,047	1,848
IV. East Midland	2,790,492	523,822	1,300	4,588	3,227
V. West Midland	2,693,176	242,507	435	1,993	1,173
VI. South-Western	1,462,397	1,008,253	2,471	10,684	7,058
VII. South-Eastern	1,192,524	408,962	1,022	3,790	2,847
VIII. Southern	2,069,696	214,216	398	1,525	893

No. III.—IRELAND.

The Quarterly Return had not been received at the time of going to press. To complete the summary of the United Kingdom, the Registrar-General for Ireland has kindly supplied the figures entered below, opposite to that country.

No. IV.—GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

SUMMARY of MARRIAGES, *in the Quarter ended 30th September, 1866 ; and*
BIRTHS and DEATHS, *in the Quarter ended 31st December, 1866.*

COUNTRIES.	AREA in Statute Acres.	POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
		No.	No.	No.	No.
England and Wales	37,324,883	20,066,224	46,196	185,010	117,187
Scotland	19,639,377	3,062,294	5,089	27,765	18,191
Ireland	20,322,641	5,798,967	5,578	33,753	22,260
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND }	77,286,901	28,927,485	56,863	246,528	157,638

The Agricultural Statistics of Great Britain.—

[000's omitted.]

1	2	3	4 5 6 7 8				9	10	11	
ENGLAND. Counties, Proper.	Popula- tion (1861).	Total Area in Statute Acres.	Number of Acres under Crops and Grass.					Per- centage of Corn Crops to Total under all kinds of Crops Bare Fallow, and Grass.	CATTLE. — Number to every 100 Acres under Crops, Bare Fallow, and Grass.	SHEEP. — Number to every 100 Acres under Crops, Bare Fallow, and Grass.
			Total under all kinds of Crops, Bare Fallow, and Grass.	Whereof under						
				Corn Crops.	Green Crops.	Clover and Artifi- cial and other Grasses under Rota- tion.	Perma- nent Pasture, Meadow, and Grass not broken up in Rotation (exclusive of Hill Pastures).			
<i>South Eastern—</i>										
Surrey	831,	479,	279,	99,	41,	28,	93,	35·7	11·8	53·6
Kent	734,	1,039,	712,	244,	84,	53,	280,	34·3	7·9	102·7
Sussex	364,	937,	577,	208,	69,	53,	210,	36·0	13·1	84·1
Southampton ..	482,	1,070,	640,	261,	131,	100,	122,	40·7	7·6	96·8
Berks	176,	452,	345,	147,	56,	37,	96,	42·2	8·9	94·8
Total	2,587,	3,977,	2,553,	959,	381,	271,	801,	37·4	9·9	86·4
<i>South Midland—</i>										
Middlesex	2,207,	180,	119,	21,	11,	5,	71,	19·1	22·1	57·0
Hertford	173,	391,	322,	147,	44,	33,	86,	45·4	7·3	67·5
Buckingham	168,	467,	377,	132,	37,	29,	171,	35·2	14·0	69·7
Oxford	171,	473,	384,	156,	57,	43,	123,	40·6	11·3	86·6
Northampton ..	228,	630,	523,	183,	42,	31,	252,	34·9	14·6	83·4
Huntingdon	64,	229,	193,	94,	21,	12,	52,	49·1	10·3	61·2
Bedford	135,	296,	243,	113,	32,	19,	68,	46·7	10·7	74·4
Cambridge	176,	525,	464,	263,	72,	39,	71,	56·7	8·0	55·1
Total	3,322,	3,192,	2,616,	1,109,	316,	211,	894,	42·4	12·3	69·3
<i>Eastern—</i>										
Essex	404,	1,061,	790,	406,	104,	72,	161,	51·4	7·1	48·0
Suffolk	337,	948,	776,	406,	124,	77,	143,	52·3	7·4	52·6
Norfolk	434,	1,354,	1,009,	449,	194,	148,	209,	44·5	9·6	59·1
Total	1,176,	3,363,	2,575,	1,261,	422,	297,	513,	50·0	8·0	53·3
<i>South-Western—</i>										
Wilts	249,	865,	636,	216,	111,	67,	224,	33·9	12·2	93·7
Dorset	189,	632,	399,	113,	61,	39,	176,	28·5	17·6	123·6
Devon	585,	1,657,	919,	271,	131,	122,	310,	29·5	20·0	83·7
Cornwall	369,	874,	436,	137,	55,	77,	96,	31·3	30·8	68·8
Somerset	445,	1,047,	736,	142,	71,	50,	459,	19·2	23·6	86·6
Total	1,837,	5,075,	3,126,	879,	429,	355,	1,265,	28·2	20·8	71·5
<i>West Midland—</i>										
Gloucester	486,	805,	598,	171,	70,	77,	270,	28·6	16·2	59·6
Hereford	123,	534,	395,	105,	39,	35,	200,	26·8	16·7	65·1
Salop	240,	826,	622,	171,	60,	65,	311,	27·5	17·8	52·7
Stafford	747,	729,	549,	125,	44,	47,	320,	22·8	20·0	42·3
Worcester	308,	472,	368,	121,	34,	32,	168,	32·7	12·5	55·4
Warwick	562,	564,	444,	151,	33,	37,	210,	34·1	15·2	64·3
Total	2,466,	3,930,	2,976,	844,	280,	293,	1,479,	28·4	16·3	56·6

Acreage of Crops and Grass in 1866.

[000's omitted.]

12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Number of Acres Under:—										ENGLAND. — Counties, Proper.
Wheat.	Barley or Bere.	Oats.	Beans.	Peas.	Pota- toes.	Turnips or Swedes.	Man- gold.	Vetches, Lucerne, and any other Crops except Clover and Grass.	Bare Fallow, and Uncropped Arable Land.	
42, 104, 98, 111, 61,	19, 41, 25, 68, 40,	27, 56, 63, 66, 25,	3, 24, 9, 6, 14,	7, 18, 12, 7, 6,	3, 12, 3, 4, 1,	20, 34, 33, 91, 38,	6, 8, 8, 7, 4,	9, 24, 15, 22, 11,	15, 14, 29, 24, 8,	<i>South Eastern—</i> Surrey Kent Sussex Southampton Berks
416,	193,	237,	56,	50,	23,	216,	33,	81,	90,	Total
10, 59, 54, 57, 71, 43, 48, 131,	2, 47, 31, 53, 55, 21, 30, 55,	6, 25, 24, 21, 20, 11, 10, 43,	2, 9, 18, 17, 25, 13, 19, 25,	2, 7, 6, 7, 9, 5, 5, 8,	3, 1, 1, 1, 2, 3, 4, 8,	2, 28, 23, 42, 27, 3, 15, 21,	2, 4, 3, 4, 4, 4, 3, 12,	4, 9, 9, 8, 7, 6, 8, 15,	1, 14, 8, 6, 15, 13, 11, 18,	<i>South Midland—</i> Middlesex Hertford Buckingham Oxford Northampton Huntingdon Bedford Cambridge
473,	294,	160,	128,	49,	23,	161,	36,	66,	86,	Total
181, 178, 189,	110, 138, 187,	46, 19, 34,	44, 37, 13,	25, 25, 17,	11, 2, 5,	32, 66, 135,	27, 33, 34,	28, 19, 13,	46, 25, 9,	<i>Eastern—</i> Essex Suffolk Norfolk
548,	435,	99,	94,	67,	18,	233,	94,	60,	80,	Total
96, 46, 112, 47, 69,	65, 38, 75, 47, 33,	33, 23, 82, 43, 24,	12, 3, 1, —, 14,	6, 2, 1, —, 2,	2, 3, 15, 6, 9,	71, 42, 76, 31, 39,	5, 5, 17, 8, 9,	22, 9, 9, 3, 10,	20, 10, 84, 71, 14,	<i>South Western—</i> Wilts Dorset Devon Cornwall Somerset
370,	258,	205,	30,	11,	35,	259,	44,	53,	199,	Total
88, 60, 80, 53, 65, 73,	42, 21, 52, 30, 21, 30,	17, 12, 25, 30, 7, 14,	17, 7, 3, 4, 18, 23,	7, 6, 9, 7, 8, 13,	5, 3, 6, 8, 5, 2,	47, 28, 48, 26, 17, 21,	4, 1, 2, 2, 3, 4,	12, 7, 4, 6, 8, 5,	11, 10, 14, 12, 12, 14,	<i>West Midland—</i> Gloucester Hereford Salop Stafford Worcester Warwick
419,	196,	105,	72,	50,	29,	187,	16,	42,	73,	Total

The Agricultural Statistics of Great Britain.—

[000's omitted.]

1	2	3	4 5 6 7 8					9	10	11
ENGLAND. — Counties, Proper.	Popula- tion (1861).	Total Area in Statute Acres.	Number of Acres under Crops and Grass.					Per- centage of Corn Crops to Total under all kinds of Crops, Bare Fallow, and Grass.	CATTLE. — Number to every 100 Acres under Crops, Bare Fallow, and Grass.	SHEEP. — Number to every 100 Acres under Crops, Bare Fallow, and Grass.
			Total under all kinds of Crops, Bare Fallow, and Grass.	Whereof under						
				Corn Crops.	Green Crops.	Clover and Artifi- cial and other Grasses under Rota- tion.	Perma- nent Pasture, Meadow, and Grass not broken up in Rotation (exclusive of Hill Pastures).			
<i>North Midland—</i>										
Leicester	238,	514,	432,	116,	27,	23,	257,	26·8	20·7	67·2
Rutland.....	22,	96,	75,	25,	8,	6,	35,	33·0	15·6	101·1
Lincoln	412,	1,775,	1,388,	593,	231,	154,	386,	42·8	12·7	78·4
Nottingham ...	294,	526,	417,	158,	55,	50,	140,	37·8	16·4	58·8
Derby	339,	659,	464,	81,	26,	33,	312,	17·6	24·5	38·0
Total	1,305,	3,570,	2,776,	973,	347,	266,	1,130,	35·1	18·0	68·7
<i>North-Western—</i>										
Chester	506,	707,	482,	97,	33,	44,	303,	20·2	26·9	20·1
Lancaster	2,429,	1,219,	708,	108,	58,	57,	474,	15·2	29·0	30·7
Total	2,935,	1,926,	1,190,	205,	91,	101,	777,	17·1	27·9	25·4
<i>York—</i>										
East Riding ...	280,	771,	612,	260,	107,	82,	141,	42·4	11·7	68·1
North „ ...	245,	1,350,	761,	221,	84,	68,	352,	29·0	16·5	60·7
West „ ...	1,508,	709,	1,094,	251,	113,	90,	613,	23·0	18·0	45·7
Total	2,033,	3,830,	2,467,	732,	304,	240,	1,106,	29·8	15·4	58·2
<i>Northern—</i>										
Durham	508,	633,	399,	110,	36,	40,	187,	27·5	13·2	36·7
Northumber- land	343,	1,249,	657,	154,	65,	87,	330,	23·4	12·1	96·6
Cumberland ...	205,	1,001,	503,	109,	51,	99,	229,	21·6	22·4	78·7
Westmorland	62,	485,	214,	24,	11,	18,	160,	10·3	25·9	105·0
Total	1,118,	3,358,	1,773,	397,	163,	244,	906,	22·4	18·4	79·2
Total of Eng- land	18,779,	32,221,	22,261,	7,400,	2,734,	2,279,	8,871,	33·2	15·4	68·8
<i>Wales—</i>										
Monmouth ...	175,	368,	208,	41,	16,	17,	127,	19·9	17·6	63·0
North Wales....	427,	2,003,	974,	233,	71,	130,	495,	23·5	25·0	84·2
South „ ...	685,	2,731,	1,311,	288,	68,	127,	763,	21·8	23·0	450·7
Total of Wales	1,287,	5,103,	2,493,	562,	155,	274,	1,385,	22·8	23·3	73·0
Total of Scot- land	3,062,	19,640,	4,158,	1,365,	663,	1,141,	893,	32·9	24·0	126·4
Total of Great Britain	23,128,	56,964,	28,704,	9,287,	3,552,	3,694,	1,149,	32·4	17·2	76·8

Acreage of Crops and Grass in 1866—Contd.

[000's omitted.]

12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Number of Acres Under:—										ENGLAND. — Counties, Proper.
Wheat.	Barley or Bere.	Oats.	Beans.	Peas.	Pota- toes.	Turnips or Swedes.	Man- gold.	Vetches, Lucerne, and any other Crops except Clover and Grass.	Bare Fallow, and Uncropped Arable Land.	
44, 9, 294, 68, 32,	32, 9, 141, 49, 15,	21, 3, 101, 18, 29,	12, 2, 28, 12, 2,	7, 1, 27, 10, 3,	2, —, 36, 6, 3,	15, 6, 135, 36, 14,	4, —, 14, 3, 1,	4, 1, 23, 7, 6,	9, 2, 24, 14, 11,	<i>North Midland—</i> Leicester Rutland Lincoln Nottingham Derby
447,	246,	172,	56,	48,	47,	206,	22,	41,	60,	Total
33, 38,	6, 8,	46, 56,	9, 5,	2, —,	22, 38,	7, 12,	1, 1,	3, 5,	5, 11,	<i>North Western—</i> Chester Lancaster
71,	14,	102,	14,	2,	60,	19,	2,	8,	16,	Total
116, 72, 103,	44, 57, 69,	75, 74, 60,	11, 11, 9,	11, 6, 8,	10, 11, 27,	71, 60, 62,	2, 1, 2,	12, 8, 19,	23, 36, 25,	<i>York—</i> East Riding North „ West „
291,	170,	209,	31,	25,	48,	193,	5,	39,	84,	Total
43, 37, 24, 2,	13, 32, 11, 3,	46, 72, 72, 17,	4, 7, —, —,	5, 5, 1, —,	7, 5, 12, 2,	23, 52, 33, 8,	—, —, 1, —,	5, 6, 3, 1,	28, 21, 14, 2,	<i>Northern—</i> Durham { Northumber- land Cumberland Westmorland
106,	59,	207,	11,	11,	26,	116,	1,	15,	65,	Total
3,141,	1,865,	1,496,	492,	313,	309,	1,590,	253,	405,	753,	{ Total of Eng- land
20, 57, 57,	12, 56, 90,	8, 113, 139,	—, 3, —,	1, 3, —,	2, 24, 20,	10, 28, 34,	1, 1, 3,	3, 17, 10,	8, 45, 65,	<i>Wales—</i> Monmouth North Wales South „
134,	158,	260,	3,	4,	46,	72,	5,	30,	118,	Total of Wales
110,	214,	1,004,	29,	3,	143,	479,	852,	33,	94,	{ Total of Scot- land
3,385,	2,237,	2,760,	524,	320,	499,	2,142,	259,	470,	965,	{ Total of Great Britain

Trade of United Kingdom, 1866-65-64.—Distribution of Exports from United Kingdom, according to the Declared Real Value of the Exports; and the Computed Real Value (Ex-duty) of Imports at Port of Entry, and therefore including Freight and Importer's Profit.

Merchandise (excluding Gold and Silver), Imported from, and Exported to, the following Foreign Countries, &c. [000's omitted.]	First Nine Months.					
	1866.		1865.		1864.	
	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to
I.—FOREIGN COUNTRIES:	£	£	£	£	£	£
Northern Europe; viz., Russia, Sweden, } Norway, Denmark & Iceland, & Heligoland }	17,211,	4,639,	15,025,	4,530,	14,199,	4,541,
Central Europe; viz., Prussia, Germany, } the Hanse Towns, Holland, and Belgium }	26,418,	19,913,	23,110,	21,034,	22,497,	19,138,
Western Europe; viz., France, Portugal } (with Azores, Madeira, &c.), and Spain } (with Gibraltar and Canaries)	32,967,	13,025,	25,814,	11,120,	25,805,	11,107,
Southern Europe; viz., Italy, Austrian } Empire, Greece, Ionian Islands, and Malta }	4,549,	5,811,	3,015,	6,026,	2,627,	6,265,
Levant; viz., Turkey, with Wallachia and } Moldavia, Syria and Palestine, and Egypt }	15,011,	12,606,	17,806,	8,960,	19,128,	10,596,
Northern Africa; viz., Tripoli, Tunis, } Algeria and Morocco	339,	213,	288,	234,	280,	137,
Western Africa	866,	424,	795,	472,	701,	403,
Eastern Africa; with African Ports on } Red Sea, Aden, Arabia, Persia, Bourbon, } and Kooria Moorria Islands	49,	140,	109,	88,	51,	69,
Indian Seas, Siam, Sumatra, Java, Philip- } pines; other Islands	548,	1,882,	1,120,	1,403,	619,	1,272,
South Sea Islands	44,	121,	20,	37,	4,	62,
China, including Hong Kong	6,946,	6,632,	7,247,	4,727,	11,788,	4,088,
United States of America	38,942,	22,065,	7,691,	12,333,	13,505,	14,843,
Mexico and Central America	615,	1,125,	3,203,	1,700,	2,724,	1,498,
Foreign West Indies and Hayti	2,658,	2,835,	4,637,	2,616,	5,280,	3,058,
South America (Northern), New Granada, } Venezuela, and Ecuador }	1,481,	2,643,	1,248,	2,116,	1,420,	1,782,
„ (Pacific), Peru, Bolivia, } Chili, and Patagonia }	4,318,	2,108,	5,236,	2,251,	4,011,	2,172,
„ (Atlantic) Brazil, Uruguay, } and Buenos Ayres	7,875,	8,450,	6,099,	6,148,	6,901,	6,782,
Whale Fisheries; Grnln., Davis, Straits, } Southn. Whale Fishery, & Falkland Islands }	89,	11,	72,	9,	42,	13,
<i>Total—Foreign Countries</i>	160,926,	104,643,	122,535,	85,804,	131,582,	87,826,
II.—BRITISH POSSESSIONS:						
British India, Ceylon, and Singapore	29,889,	17,023,	25,591,	15,853,	37,612,	15,943,
Austral. Cols.—New South Wales and Victoria	6,652,	6,498,	5,937,	6,362,	5,563,	5,490,
„ „ So. Aus., W. Aus., Tasm., } and N. Zealand	3,128,	3,178,	29,000,	2,804,	2,754,	2,719,
British North America	3,433,	6,318,	3,952,	4,092,	4,110,	5,275,
„ W. Indies with Btsh. Guiana & Honduras	5,484,	2,025,	6,259,	2,034,	9,015,	3,038,
Cape and Natal	1,316,	1,010,	1,502,	1,428,	1,185,	1,619,
Brt. W. Co. of Af., Ascension and St. Helena	404,	414,	320,	296,	195,	200,
Mauritius	1,148,	449,	911,	465,	1,230,	490,
Channel Islands	330,	379,	285,	579,	612,	804,
<i>Total—British Possessions</i>	51,784,	37,294,	47,657,	33,913,	62,276,	35,578,
General Total	£ 212,710,	141,937,	170,192,	119,717,	193,858,	123,404,

Trade of United Kingdom, 1864-60.—Computed Real Value of the Total Exports of Foreign and Colonial Produce and Manufactures to each Foreign Country and British Possession.

Merchandise Exported to the following Foreign Countries, &c. [000's omitted.]	1864.	1863.	1862.	1861.	1860.
I.—FOREIGN COUNTRIES.	£	£	£	£	£
Northern Europe; viz., Russia, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, & Iceland, & Heligoland } 4,291,	3,487,	2,319,	3,617,	2,889,	
Central Europe; viz., Prussia, Germany, the Hanse Towns, Holland and Belgium } 20,153,	18,936,	14,515,	13,709,	11,189,	
Western Europe; viz., France, Portugal, (with Azores, Madeira, &c.), and Spain, (with Gibraltar and Canaries) } 16,969,	16,271,	14,015,	9,555,	8,065,	
Southern Europe; viz., Italy, Austrian Empire, Greece, Ionian Islands, and Malta } 1,584,	2,122,	1,784,	1,972,	1,415,	
Levant; viz., Turkey, with Wallachia and Moldavia, Syria and Palestine, and Egypt } 539,	451,	585,	278,	340,	
Northern Africa; viz., Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria, and Morocco } 62,	61,	58,	41,	43,	
Western Africa 170,	190,	262,	236,	194,	
Eastern Africa; with African Ports on Red Sea, Aden, Arabia, Persia, Bourbon, and Kooria Moorla Islands } —	—	—	—	—	
Indian Seas, Siam, Sumatra, Java, Philippines, other Islands } 29,	19,	15,	12,	17,	
South Sea Islands —	—	—	—	—	
China, including Hong Kong 279,	209,	100,	92,	134,	
United States of America 3,475,	4,352,	4,846,	1,961,	1,241,	
Mexico and Central America 434,	76,	65,	73,	90,	
Foreign West Indies and Hayti 200,	132,	157,	114,	103,	
South America (Northern), New Granada, Venezuela and Ecuador } 74,	67,	48,	21,	49,	
„ (Pacific), Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and Patagonia } 60,	70,	37,	44,	82,	
„ (Atlantic), Brazil, Uruguay, and Buenos Ayres } 157,	150,	154,	179,	184,	
Other countries (unenumerated) 110,	60,	26,	26,	28,	
Total—Foreign Countries	48,586,	46,653,	38,986,	31,930,	26,063,
II.—BRITISH POSSESSIONS:					
British India, Ceylon, and Singapore 908,	909,	791,	692,	807,	
Austral. Cols.—New South Wales and Victoria, So. Aus., W. Aus., Tasm., and N. Zea. } 1,069,	1,146,	903,	838,	892,	
British North America 674,	714,	790,	466,	259,	
„ W. Indies with Btsh. Guiana & Honduras 515,	433,	341,	219,	234,	
Cape and Natal 111,	103,	114,	117,	97,	
Brt. W. Co. of Af., Ascension and St. Helena 87,	96,	72,	62,	46,	
Mauritius 19,	38,	22,	38,	26,	
Ports in the Crimea —	—	—	—	—	
Channel Islands 192,	145,	145,	155,	193,	
Other possessions 9,	63,	12,	13,	13,	
Total—British Possessions	3,584,	3,647,	3,190,	2,600,	2,567,
General Total£	52,170,	50,300,	42,176,	34,530,	28,630,

IMPORTS. — (United Kingdom.)—Whole Years, 1866-65-64-63-62.—Computed Real Value (Ex-duty), at Port of Entry (and therefore including Freight and Importer's Profit), of Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise Imported into the United Kingdom.

(Whole Years.) [000's omitted.] FOREIGN ARTICLES IMPORTED.		1866.	1865.	1864.	1863.	1862.
		£	£	£	£	£
RAW MATLS.—Textile.	Cotton Wool	77,521,	66,032,	78,204,	56,278,	31,093,
	Wool (Sheep's) ..	17,959,	15,367,	15,998,	12,290,	12,109,
	Silk	15,896,	18,135,	12,940,	15,248,	15,897,
	Flax	4,469,	5,370,	5,323,	4,271,	5,206,
	Hemp	3,215,	3,531,	3,976,	3,451,	2,645,
	Indigo	2,208,	2,004,	2,248,	2,398,	2,446,
		121,268,	110,439,	118,689,	93,936,	69,396,
" "	<i>Various.</i> Hides	3,342,	3,044,	3,132,	3,217,	3,188,
	Oils	4,482,	4,311,	3,390,	4,075,	3,951,
	Metals	4,953,	5,185,	4,504,	4,087,	4,604,
	Tallow	3,009,	3,125,	2,077,	2,439,	2,508,
	Timber.....	10,459,	11,501,	10,946,	10,754,	9,293,
		26,245,	27,166,	24,049,	24,572,	23,544,
" "	<i>Agrcltl.</i> Guano	1,448,	2,676,	1,463,	2,659,	1,635,
	Seeds	3,375,	4,983,	3,947,	3,372,	3,211,
		4,823,	6,659,	5,410,	6,031,	4,846,
TROPICAL, &c., PRODUCE.	Tea	11,130,	10,004,	9,439,	10,666,	9,176,
	Coffee	4,088,	4,604,	3,616,	4,155,	3,303,
	Sugar & Molasses	12,204,	13,002,	16,458,	12,367,	12,019,
	Tobacco	2,627,	3,250,	3,361,	3,017,	2,351,
	Rice	1,539,	1,331,	1,809,	1,866,	2,400,
	Fruits	1,267,	1,371,	1,172,	1,562,	1,228,
	Wines	4,733,	3,914,	5,003,	4,497,	3,649,
	Spirits	2,101,	1,508,	1,990,	1,706,	1,692,
		39,689,	39,024,	42,848,	39,836,	35,818,
FOOD	Grain and Meal.	29,802,	20,643,	19,709,	25,886,	37,748,
	Provisions	10,463,	10,295,	9,740,	8,789,	8,564,
		40,265,	30,938,	29,449,	34,675,	46,312,
Remainder of Enumerated Articles		6,424,	5,525,	5,612,	4,776,	4,213,
TOTAL ENUMERATED IMPORTS		238,714,	219,751,	226,057,	203,826,	184,129,
Add for UNENUMERATED IMPORTS (say)		59,678,	54,937,	56,511,	45,154,	42,473,
TOTAL IMPORTS		298,392,	274,688,	282,568,	248,980,	226,592,

EXPORTS.—(United Kingdom.)—Whole Years, 1866-65-64-63-62.—Declared Real Value, at Port of Shipment, of Articles of BRITISH and IRISH Produce and Manufactures Exported from United Kingdom.

(Whole Years.) [000's omitted.] BRITISH PRODUCE, &C., EXPORTED.		1866.	1865.	1864.	1863.	1862.
		£	£	£	£	£
MANFBS.—Textile.	Cotton Manufactures..	60,865,	46,904,	45,760,	39,424,	30,569,
	„ Yarn	13,700,	10,351,	9,096,	8,020,	6,203,
	Woolen Manufactures	21,726,	20,102,	18,566,	15,519,	13,147,
	„ Yarn	4,734,	5,424,	5,422,	5,065,	3,854,
	Silk Manufactures.....	1,698,	1,884,	2,018,	1,959,	2,015,
	„ Yarn	248,	294,	297,	270,	346,
	Linen Manufactures ...	9,576,	9,155,	8,158,	6,510,	5,131,
	„ Yarn	2,380,	2,505,	3,010,	2,536,	1,852,
		114,927,	96,619,	92,327,	79,303,	63,117,
	„ Sewed. Apparel	2,877,	2,640,	2,584,	2,808,	2,556,
	Haberd. and Millnry.	5,403,	5,014,	4,787,	4,362,	3,592,
		8,280,	7,654,	7,371,	7,170,	6,148,
METALS	Hardware	4,378,	4,334,	4,159,	3,827,	3,346,
	Machinery	4,749,	5,214,	4,854,	4,365,	4,097,
	Iron	14,829,	13,451,	13,214,	13,111,	11,302,
	Copper and Brass.....	2,831,	3,166,	3,911,	4,233,	2,823,
	Lead and Tin	3,169,	2,847,	2,786,	2,863,	2,729,
	Coals and Culm	5,084,	4,432,	4,162,	3,708,	3,750,
		35,040,	33,444,	33,086,	32,107,	28,047,
Ceramic Manufcts.	Earthenware and Glass	2,454,	2,186,	2,179,	2,090,	1,863,
Indigenous Mnfrs.	Beer and Ale.....	2,056,	2,060,	1,823,	1,777,	1,594,
	Butter	361,	334,	328,	472,	379,
	Cheese	164,	111,	149,	156,	127,
	Candles	222,	109,	142,	190,	226,
	Salt	378,	276,	281,	287,	321,
	Spirits	151,	245,	503,	454,	511,
	Soda	1,611,	1,125,	917,	868,	886,
		4,943,	4,260,	4,142,	4,204,	4,044,
Various Manufcts.	Books, Printed	602,	517,	466,	457,	416,
	Furniture	237,	290,	259,	302,	276,
	Leather Manufactures	2,043,	2,462,	2,404,	2,318,	2,565,
	Soap	241,	184,	231,	256,	227,
	Plate and Watches ...	413,	404,	427,	463,	505,
	Stationery	389,	403,	354,	345,	286,
		3,925,	4,260,	4,141,	4,141,	4,275,
Remainder of Enumerated Articles		10,664,	9,703,	9,648,	8,669,	8,839,
Unenumerated Articles.....		8,595,	7,736,	7,542,	8,805,	7,805,
		188,828,	165,862,	160,436,	146,489,	124,138,
TOTAL EXPORTS.....		188,828,	165,862,	160,436,	146,489,	124,138,

SHIPPING.—FOREIGN TRADE.—(United Kingdom.)—Years, 1866-65-64-63.—
*Vessels Entered and Cleared with Cargoes, including repeated Voyages, but
excluding Government Transports.*

(Whole Years.) ENTERED :—	1866.			1865.		1864.		1863.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Average Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)
<i>Vessels belonging to—</i>	No.	Tons.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Russia	475	172,	362	522	178,	683	237,	423	137,
Sweden	1,126	211,	187	1,023	188,	1,233	201,	1,043	172,
Norway	3,903	939,	241	3,676	875,	3,987	869,	3,360	755,
Denmark	2,261	244,	108	2,125	226,	2,731	271,	2,871	278,
Prussia and Ger. Sts.	4,141	1,018,	246	3,959	924,	2,379	600,	3,881	942,
Holland and Belgium	2,031	282,	139	2,080	286,	1,849	262,	1,702	242,
France	3,067	282,	92	3,305	301,	2,523	203,	2,884	238,
Spain and Portugal	396	124,	313	419	127,	430	130,	364	112,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	1,185	354,	299	1,154	331,	885	254,	919	266,
United States	408	431,	1,056	343	363,	429	457,	681	692,
All other States	14	5,	357	23	7,	17	6,	12	4,
United Kingdm. & Depds. }	19,007	4,062,	214	18,629	3,806,	17,146	3,490,	18,140	3,838,
	27,382	9,214,	336	25,881	8,358,	24,962	7,812,	23,773	7,299,
<i>Totals Entered...</i>	46,389	13,276,	286	44,510	12,164,	42,108	11,302,	41,913	11,137,
CLEARED :—									
Russia	425	160,	376	444	155,	600	220,	420	131,
Sweden	1,068	196,	183	927	156,	1,161	186,	1,039	167,
Norway	2,195	442,	201	1,995	379,	2,398	433,	1,860	333,
Denmark	2,367	256,	108	2,399	251,	2,924	289,	3,272	321,
Prussia and Ger. Sts.	5,391	1,152,	214	5,382	1,093,	3,422	730,	5,548	1,132,
Holland and Belgium	2,043	329,	161	2,258	352,	1,831	287,	1,888	292,
France	4,231	454,	107	4,128	431,	4,547	454,	4,602	450,
Spain and Portugal	376	121,	321	415	127,	436	136,	390	124,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	1,317	422,	320	1,321	421,	1,242	374,	1,106	330,
United States	507	514,	1,014	394	397,	434	459,	627	648,
All other States	24	9,	375	38	9,	31	11,	21	6,
United Kingdm. & Depds. }	19,944	4,055,	203	19,701	3,771,	19,026	3,579,	20,773	3,934,
	29,764	9,952,	334	28,480	9,046,	28,229	8,590,	27,624	7,952,
<i>Totals Cleared...</i>	49,708	14,007,	282	48,181	12,817,	47,255	12,169,	48,397	11,886,

GOLD AND SILVER BULLION AND SPECIE. — IMPORTED AND EXPORTED. — (United Kingdom.) — *Computed Real Value for the Whole Years, 1866-65-64.*

[000's omitted.]

(Whole Years.)	1866.		1865.		1864.	
	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.
Imported from:—	£	£	£	£	£	£
Australia	6,840,	1,	5,051,	—	2,657,	—
So. Amca. and W. } Indies	2,169,	4,470,	2,444,	4,929,	5,240,	7,002,
United States and } Cal.	8,412,	1,833,	4,304,	230,	7,480,	155,
	17,421,	6,304,	11,799,	5,159,	15,377,	7,157,
France	2,843,	2,498,	308,	854,	574,	1,115,
Hanse Towns, Holl. } & Belg.	770,	870,	130,	698,	220,	2,271,
Prtgl., Spain, and } Gbrltr.	612,	152,	810,	108,	133,	93,
Mlta., Trky., and } Egypt	260,	80,	320,	1,	81,	1,
China	—	—	—	—	—	—
West Coast of Africa	120,	19,	112,	20,	96,	24,
All other Countries...	1,484,	854,	1,006,	136,	420,	166,
Totals Imported...	23,510,	10,777,	14,485,	6,976,	16,901,	10,827,
Exported to:—						
France	8,465,	2,090,	4,263,	700,	7,775,	2,146,
Hanse Towns, Holl. } & Belg.	1,073,	3,137,	323,	2,006,	82,	1,001,
Prtgl., Spain, and } Gbrltr.	162,	107,	1,491,	4,	1,590,	29,
	9,700,	5,334,	6,077,	2,710,	9,447,	3,176,
Ind. and China (viâ } Egypt)	458,	2,538,	580,	3,808,	2,060,	6,308,
Danish West Indies	—	—	—	—	—	—
United States	1,015,	—	61,	5,	185,	5,
South Africa	5,	—	19,	—	208,	—
Mauritius	—	—	—	—	—	—
Brazil	945,	89,	1,271,	105,	927,	143,
All other Countries...	619,	967,	485,	90,	453,	245,
Totals Exported...	12,742,	8,928,	8,493,	6,718,	13,280,	9,877,
Excess of Imports ...	10,768,	1,849,	5,992,	258,	3,621,	950,
„ Exports ...	—	—	—	—	—	—

REVENUE.—(UNITED KINGDOM.)—31ST DECEMBER, 1866-65-64-63.

Net Produce in YEARS and QUARTERS ended 31st Dec., 1866-65-64-63.

[000's omitted.]

QUARTERS, ended 31st Dec.	1866.	1865.	1866.		Corresponding Quarters.	
			Less.	More.	1864.	1863.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Customs	5,964,	5,670,	—	294,	5,932,	5,970,
Excise	5,471,	5,110,	—	361,	5,000,	4,753,
Stamps	2,308,	2,373,	65,	—	2,223,	2,293,
Taxes	1,358,	1,317,	—	41,	1,294,	1,285,
Post Office	1,140,	1,130,	—	10,	1,090,	990,
Property Tax	16,241,	15,600,	65,	706,	15,539,	15,291,
	1,314,	1,451,	137,	—	1,580,	2,132,
Crown Lands	17,555,	17,051,	202,	706,	17,119,	17,423,
	95,	90,	—	5,	88,	87,
Miscellaneous	683,	866,	183,	—	863,	808,
Totals	18,333,	18,007,	385,	711,	18,070,	18,318,
			NET INCR. £325,520			

YEARS, ended 31st Dec.	1866.	1865.	1866.		Corresponding Years.	
			Less.	More.	1864.	1863.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Customs	21,915,	21,707,	—	208,	22,535,	23,421,
Excise	20,616,	19,649,	—	967,	19,343,	17,745,
Stamps	9,291,	9,636,	345,	—	9,468,	9,252,
Taxes	3,463,	3,364,	—	99,	3,261,	3,208,
Post Office	4,375,	4,250,	—	125,	4,060,	3,800,
Property Tax	59,660,	58,606,	345,	1,399,	58,667,	57,426,
	5,458,	7,603,	2,145,	—	7,999,	9,806,
Crown Lands	65,118,	66,209,	2,490,	1,399,	66,666,	67,232,
	327,	314,	—	13,	307,	302,
Miscellaneous	3,341,	2,673,	—	667,	3,152,	2,899,
Totals	68,786,	69,196,	2,490,	2,079,	70,125,	70,433,
			NET DECR. £410,816			

REVENUE.—UNITED KINGDOM.—QUARTER ENDED 31ST DECEMBER, 1866:—

An Account showing the REVENUE and other RECEIPTS of the QUARTER ended 31st December, 1866; the APPLICATION of the same, and the Charge of the Consolidated Fund for the said Quarter, together with the Surplus or Deficiency upon such Charge.

Received:—

Surplus Balance beyond the Charge of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> for the Quarter ended 30th September, 1866, viz.:—	£
Great Britain	—
Ireland	£244,554
	<hr/> 244,554
Income received, as shown in Account I	18,332,935
Amount raised on account of Fortifications, &c., per Acts 27 and 28 Vict., cap. 109, and 28 and 29 Vict., cap. 61	350,000
Amount received for Exchequer Bills issued to replace Bills paid off in money	548,500
Amount received in repayment of Advances for Public Works, &c.	375,119
Ditto, for New Courts of Justice	145,000
	<hr/> £19,996,108
Balance, being the Deficiency on 31st December, 1866, upon the charge of the Consolidated Fund in Great Britain, to meet the Dividends and other charges payable in the Quarter to 31st March, 1867, and for which Exchequer Bills (Deficiency) will be issued in that Quarter	1,853,765
	<hr/> £21,849,873

Paid:—

Amount applied out of the Income in Redemption of Deficiency Bills issued in the Quarter to 31st December, 1866, for the charge of the Consolidated Fund in Great Britain on 30th September, 1866, viz.:—	£
Total deficiency.....	£3,121,893
Deduct amount redeemed with Sinking Fund ...	89,000
	<hr/> 3,032,893
Amount applied out of the Income to <i>Supply Services</i>	9,330,092
„ advanced for New Courts of Justice	108,000
Charge of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> for the Quarter ended 31st December, 1866, viz.:—	
Interest of the Permanent Debt	£6,218,345
Terminable Debt	291,030
Principal of Exchequer Bills	8,800
Interest of „	68,963
„ Deficiency Bills	150
The Civil List	101,829
Other Charges on Consolidated Fund	677,442
Advances for Public Works, &c.	597,316
Sinking Fund	463,273
	<hr/> 8,427,148
<i>Surplus Balance</i> in Ireland beyond the Charge of the Consolidated Fund in Ireland for the Quarter ended 31st December, 1866	951,740
	<hr/> £21,849,873

**BRITISH CORN.—*Gazette Average Prices (ENGLAND AND WALES),
Fourth Quarter of 1866.***

[This Table is communicated by the Statistical and Corn Department, Board of Trade.]

Weeks ended on a Saturday, 1866.		Weekly Average. (Per Impl. Quarter.)					
		Wheat.		Barley.		Oats.	
		s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Oct.	6	52	2	41	4	23	1
"	13	52	7	42	1	23	—
"	20	52	2	42	11	22	11
"	27	52	6	41	8	22	10
<i>Average for October.....</i>		52	4	42	—	22	11
Nov.	3	54	9	43	10	23	7
"	10	57	2	44	9	23	5
"	17	56	7	45	3	23	6
"	24	57	6	45	6	23	9
<i>Average for November.....</i>		56	6	44	10	23	6
Dec.	1	60	—	45	10	25	5
"	8	61	7	46	2	24	3
"	15	60	3	45	7	24	5
"	22	59	5	44	4	25	11
"	29	60	—	44	—	24	3
<i>Average for December</i>		60	3	45	2	24	10
<i>Average for the quarter</i>		56	8	44	1	23	10
<i>Average for the year</i>		49	11	37	5	24	7

RAILWAYS.—PRICES, Oct.—Dec.;—and TRAFFIC, January—December, 1866.

Total Capital Ex- pended Mlns.	Railway.	For the (£100). Price on			Miles Open.		Total Traffic. 52 Weeks. (000's omitted.)		Traffic pr. Mile pr. Wk. 52 Weeks.		Dividends per Cent. for Half Years.		
		1st Dec.	1st Nov.	1st Oct.	'66.	'65.	'66.	'65.	'66.	'65.	30 June, '66.	31 Dec. '66.	30 Jun. '65.
£					No.	No.	£	£	£	£	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
53,9	Lond. & N. Westn.	117	118½	117½	1,319	1,294	6,146,	5,933,	91	88	60 —	72 6	60 —
48,2	Great Western	52¾	53½	54½	1,311	1,280	3,787,	3,656,	56	55	20 —	20 —	20 —
19,4	„ Northern	116	117	117	422	404	1,994,	1,908,	82	81	50 —	87 6	55 —
23,8	„ Eastern	26	26½	29½	709	727	1,850,	1,830,	53	51	Nil	Nil	10 —
15,4	Brighton	82	90	85	1314	293	1,169,	1,097,	76	74	40 —	65 —	50 —
19,4	South-Eastern	63½	66	66	330	315	1,277,	1,253,	81	86	28 9	45 —	25 —
16,8	„ Western....	84	84	84	503	490	—	—	53	50	40 —	55 —	45 —
196,9		77¼	79¼	79	4,908	4,803	16,223,	15,677,	70	69	34 1	49 3	38 —
27,1	Midland	122½	125	121	695	677	2,666,	2,517,	77	76	60 —	70 —	65 —
21,3	Lanesh. and York.	124	125	123	403	403	2,358,	2,117,	119	108	67 6	62 6	55 —
14,5	Sheffield and Man.	49½	52½	55	246	246	1,083,	1,002,	92	84	20 —	35 —	10 —
37,8	North-Eastern	105	106	104	1,221	1,208	3,677,	3,498,	61	60	55 —	65 —	55 —
100,7		100	102	100¾	2,565	2,534	9,784,	9,134,	87	82	48 1	58 1	38 9
18,9	Caledonian	122	122½	125	562	562	1,577,	1,526,	63	63	72 6	75 —	67 6
6,1	Gt. S. & Wn. Irlnd.	92	92	92	419	387	—	—	32	33	50 —	50 —	45 —
322,6	<i>Gen. aver.</i>	89	90½	90¼	8,454	8,286	27,584,	26,337,	72	70	42 7	54 —	43 3

Consols.—Money Prices, 1st Dec., 89¾ to 7⁄8 (de.).—1st Nov., 89¼ to 3⁄8 (de.).—1st Oct. 89½.

Exchequer Bills.—1st Dec., 1s. to 5s. prem.—1st Nov., par. to 4s. prem.—1st Oct., 3s. prem.

BANK OF ENGLAND.—WEEKLY RETURN.

Pursuant to the Act 7th and 8th Victoria, c. 32 (1844), for Wednesday in each Week, during the FOURTH QUARTER (October—December) of 1866.

[0,000's omitted.]

1					6	
2					7	
ISSUE DEPARTMENT.					COLLATERAL COLUMNS.	
Liabilities.	DATES.	Assets.			Notes in	Minimum Rates
Notes Issued.	(Wednesdays.)	Government Debt.	Other Securities.	Gold Coin and Bullion.	Hands of Public. (Col. 1 minus col. 16.)	of Discount at Bank of England.
£	1866.	£	£	£	£	1866. Per ann.
Mlns.		Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	28 Sept. 4½ p.ct.
30,90	Oct. 3 ...	11,01	3,98	15,90	24,33	
30,47	„ 10 ...	11,01	3,98	15,47	23,97	
30,13	„ 17 ...	11,01	3,98	15,13	24,09	
30,42	„ 24 ...	11,01	3,98	15,42	23,72	
30,76	„ 31 ...	11,01	3,98	15,76	23,81	
30,94	Nov. 7 ...	11,01	3,98	15,94	23,57	
31,08	„ 14 ...	11,01	3,98	16,08	23,27	9 Nov. 4 „
31,74	„ 21 ...	11,01	3,98	16,74	22,94	
32,14	„ 28 ...	11,01	3,98	17,14	22,49	
32,23	Dec. 5 ...	11,01	3,98	17,23	22,72	
32,50	„ 12 ...	11,01	3,98	17,50	22,10	
32,70	„ 19 ...	11,01	3,98	17,70	22,10	
33,31	„ 26 ...	11,01	3,98	18,31	21,99	

BANKING DEPARTMENT.

8		9		10		11		12		13		14		15		16		17		18	
Liabilities.										DATES. (Wdnsdys.)		Assets.									
Capital and Rest.		Deposits.		Seven Day and other Bills.	Securities.		Reserve.		Totals of Liabili- ties and Assets.												
Capital.	Rest.	Public.	Private.		Government.	Other.	Notes.	Gold and Silver Coin.													
£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£											
Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	1866.	Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.											
14,55	4,11	6,17	17,21	,66	Oct. 3	12,22	22,94	6,57	,97	42,70											
14,55	3,17	6,27	17,45	,61	„ 10	12,42	22,15	6,50	,99	42,06											
14,55	3,23	3,39	18,78	,63	„ 17	12,29	21,24	6,04	1,00	40,58											
14,55	3,23	3,22	18,76	,64	„ 24	12,19	20,55	6,70	,96	40,40											
14,55	3,23	3,92	17,86	,62	„ 31	12,19	20,08	6,95													
									,96	40,18											
14,55	3,24	4,38	17,15	,64	Nov. 7	12,30	19,33	7,37	,95	39,96											
14,55	3,25	5,15	16,69	,59	„ 14	12,30	19,06	7,81	1,06	40,23											
14,55	3,26	5,83	17,43	,58	„ 21	12,67	19,18	8,80	1,01	41,66											
14,55	3,24	6,16	18,25	,52	„ 28	12,85	19,19	9,65	1,03	42,72											
14,55	3,24	6,84	17,74	,50	Dec. 5	12,96	19,49	9,51	1,01	42,87											
14,55	3,25	7,39	18,42	,49	„ 12	13,01	19,64	10,40	1,05	44,10											
14,55	3,26	8,07	18,18	,49	„ 19	13,01	19,83	10,60	1,12	44,55											
14,55	3,26	8,71	18,59	,45	„ 26	13,01	20,24	11,37	,94	45,57											

CIRCULATION.—COUNTRY BANKS.

Average Amount of Promissory Notes in Circulation in ENGLAND and WALES on Saturday, in each Week during the FOURTH QUARTER (Oct.—Dec.) of 1866; and in SCOTLAND and IRELAND, at the Three Dates, as under.

ENGLAND AND WALES.				SCOTLAND.				IRELAND.		
DATES.	Private Banks. (Fixed Issues, 4,03).	Joint Stock Banks. (Fixed Issues, 3,22).	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 7,25).	Three Weeks, ended	£5 and upwards.	Under £5.	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 2,75).	£5 and upwards.	Under £5.	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 6,35).
1866.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	1866.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.
Oct. 6	2,82	2,37	5,19	Oct. 13	1,57	2,86	4,43	3,00	2,90	5,90
„ 13	2,90	2,41	5,31							
„ 20	2,90	2,45	5,35							
„ 27	2,90	2,42	5,33							
Nov. 3	2,87	2,40	5,27	Nov. 10	1,66	2,96	4,62	3,29	3,26	6,55
„ 10	2,84	2,38	5,22							
„ 17	2,80	2,37	5,17							
„ 24	2,79	2,36	5,15							
Dec. 1	2,76	2,32	5,08	Dec. 8	1,78	3,19	4,97	3,22	3,23	6,45
„ 8	2,72	2,28	5,00							
„ 15	2,69	2,26	4,95							
„ 22	2,69	2,25	4,94							
„ 29	2,69	2,25	4,94							

FOREIGN EXCHANGES.—*Quotations as under, LONDON on Paris, Hamburg & Calcutta;—and New York, Calcutta, Hong Kong & Sydney, on LONDON—with collateral cols.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
DATES.	Paris.				Hamburg.			New York.	Calcutta.		Hong Kong.	Sydney.	Standard Silver in bars in London.
	London on Paris.	Bullion as arbitrated.		Prem. or Dis. on Gold per mille.	London on Hambg.	Bullion as arbitrated.			India Council.	At Calcutta on London.			
		Agnst. Engd.	For Engd.			Agnst. Engd.	For Engd.						
	3 m. d.				3 m. d.			60 d. s.	60 d. s.	6 m. d.	6 m. s.	30 d. s.	pr. oz.
1866.		pr. ct.	pr. ct.			pr. ct.	pr. ct.	pr. ct.	d.	d.	d.	pr. ct.	d.
Oct. 6 ..	25.45	—	.2	par.	13.9	—	—	160 $\frac{1}{2}$	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ pm	61
„ 20 ..	„	—	.3	„	„	—	—	159 $\frac{3}{4}$	„ $\frac{3}{4}$	„ $\frac{1}{8}$	53 $\frac{3}{8}$	2 $\frac{3}{4}$ „	„
Nov. 3 ..	„	—	—	„	„ $\frac{1}{4}$	—	—	160 $\frac{3}{4}$	„ $\frac{1}{2}$	„ $\frac{3}{8}$	54 $\frac{1}{4}$	2 $\frac{3}{4}$ „	„
„ 17 ..	„	—	—	„	„ $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	137 $\frac{1}{2}$	„	„	54 $\frac{1}{4}$	2 $\frac{3}{4}$ pm	60 $\frac{7}{8}$
Dec. 1 ..	.40	—	—	„	.9	—	—	151 $\frac{3}{4}$	„	„ $\frac{5}{8}$	„ $\frac{1}{2}$	„	61
„ 15 ..	„	—	—	„	„	—	—	109 $\frac{3}{8}$	„ $\frac{1}{4}$	„	„	„	60 $\frac{7}{8}$

JOURNAL OF THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY,

JUNE, 1867.

REPORT of the COUNCIL for the FINANCIAL YEAR ended 31st December, 1866, and for the SESSIONAL YEAR ended 15th March, 1867, presented at the THIRTY-THIRD ANNIVERSARY MEETING of the STATISTICAL SOCIETY, held at the Society's Rooms, 12, St. James's Square, on Friday, 15th March, 1867; with the PROCEEDINGS of that Meeting.

LORD HOUGHTON, *President, in the Chair.*

THE Council have again the satisfaction of reporting their proceedings to the Fellows of the Statistical Society.

The transactions of the past Session, 1866-67, embrace the work accomplished during the *thirty-third* year of the Society's existence.

The subjoined statement discloses the number of Fellows on the books of the Society during the past and at the commencement of the present sessional year. It also shows, by a comparison of the figures, the changes which have taken place in the interval of those periods.

	1866-67.	1865-66.
Number of Fellows on 1st of March	366	364
Life Members included in that number	64	68
Members lost during the year by death, with- drawal or default	21	29
New Members elected	18	30

The Balances, the year's Income, and the Surplus of Assets for the financial years ended with December, 1865 and 1866, are shown by the statement which follows:—

	Past Year.	Previous Year.
	£	£
Balance at beginning of year	302	175
Receipts from all sources during year.....	754	921
Balance in cash at end of year.....	199	302
Surplus of assets over liabilities at end of year	1,878	1,874

During the past Session, *i.e.*, from March, 1866, to February, 1867, inclusive, the eight papers named below were read at the ordinary meetings of the Society. Several of the topics thus brought under the notice of the Fellows were of unusual interest and importance. The attendance of Fellows and Visitors at the ordinary meetings has been generally very full, and the discussions which have arisen upon the different papers have been animated and instructive.

PAPERS READ DURING THE THIRTY-THIRD SESSION.

- March 20, 1866.—*Mr. Samuel Brown*.—On the Statistical Progress of the Kingdom of Italy.
- April 17, ,, *Professor W. S. Jevons, M.A.*—On the Frequent Autumnal Pressure in the Money Market.
- May 15, ,, *Major-General Balfour, C.B.*—On the Budgets and Accounts of England and France.
- June 19, ,, *The Duke of Argyll, K.T.*—On the Economic Condition of the Highlands of Scotland.
- Nov. 20, ,, *Mr. R. Dudley Baxter, M.A.*—On Railway Extension and its Results.
- Dec. 18, ,, *Professor Jacob Waley, M.A.*—On Combinations and Strikes with Reference to the Rate of Wages.
- Jan. 15, 1867.—*Dr. Mouat*.—On Prison Discipline and Statistics in Bengal.
- Feb. 19, ,, *Major-General Balfour, C.B.*—On the Military Conscription of France.

The *thirty-sixth* meeting of the British Association was held at Nottingham in the month of August last. Professor J. E. Thorold Rogers, member of the Council of this Society, was the President of the Section devoted to "Economic Science and Statistics." His address, and some of the papers read upon that occasion, have been printed in the Society's *Journal*.

The President having moved the adoption of the Report, together with the Abstract of Receipts and Payments, and the Auditors' Report, the Resolution was seconded and carried unanimously.

Mr. Hyde Clarke and Mr. Tayler having been appointed Scrutineers, the following was declared to be the list of President, Council, and Officers balloted for the ensuing twelvemonths, *viz.*:—

COUNCIL AND OFFICERS FOR 1867-68.

President.

THE RIGHT HONOURABLE W. E. GLADSTONE, M.P.

Council.

<i>Walter Bagehot, M.A.</i>	William Barwick Hodge
Major-General Balfour, C.B.	Right Hon. Lord Houghton
<i>R. Dudley Baxter, M.A.</i>	Charles Jellicoe
Right Hon. Lord Belper	Francis Jourdan
Sir John P. Boileau, Bart., F.R.S.	<i>John Lambert</i>
William John Bovill	Professor Leone Levi
Samuel Brown	William Golden Lumley, LL.M.
William Camps, M.D.	Matthew Henry Marsh, M.P.
David Chadwick	William Newmarch, F.R.S.
Leonard Henry Courtney	Frederick Purdy
William Farr, M.D., D.C.L., F.R.S.	Professor J. E. Thorold Rogers, M.A.
William Augustus Guy, M.B., F.R.S.	<i>William Lucas Sargant</i>
James Thomas Hammick	Colonel W. H. Sykes, M.P., F.R.S.
Frederick Hendriks	<i>Professor Jacob Waley, M.A.</i>
James Heywood, M.A., F.R.S.	John Walter

*The names of the New Members of the Council are printed in Italics.**Treasurer.*

William Farr, M.D., D.C.L., F.R.S.

Honorary Secretaries.

William Augustus Guy, M.B., F.R.S. | William Golden Lumley, LL.M.
 Frederick Purdy.

A vote of thanks to the President, Council, and Officers, for their services during the past year, was carried unanimously.

A vote of thanks to the Chair brought the proceedings to a close.

(I.)—RECEIPTS and PAYMENTS of the STATISTICAL SOCIETY for the YEAR 1866.

RECEIPTS.			PAYMENTS.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
Balance in Bank, 31st } December, 1865 }	£296	18 4	Rent of Rooms	87	10 -
Balance of Petty Cash... }	-	- 3	Salaries	185	- -
Balance of Advertise- } ment Cash	4	16 -	Journal, Printing of £346	10	3
			Making Index to } Journal	4	4 -
		301 14 7			350 14 3
1866.			Advertising Journal and Meetings	17	4 -
Dividends on Consols	30	19 6	Ordinary Meeting Expenses, viz.:		
			Refreshments	£7	16 10
Subscriptions, viz.:-			Attendance	6	8 -
12 Arrears	25	4 -	Diagrams	16	- -
268 for 1866	562	16 -	Other Expenses	3	- -
1 " '67	2	2 -			33 4 10
		590 2 -	Library (Books, Binding, &c.) ...	13	15 3
1 Composition	21	- -	Stationery and Sundry Printing	27	18 7
Journal Sales, per Pub- } lisher	£72	2 2	Postages	22	5 -
Journal Sales per As- } sistant Secretary ... }	6	10 8	£100 New Three per Cents	85	7 6
Journal Advertisements	33	13 -	Incidental Expenses	34	7 4
		112 5 10	Balance in hand } 31st December, } 1866	£193	19 2
		£1,056 1 11	Balance of Petty } Cash	-	4 -
			Balance of Adver- } tisement Cash }	4	12 -
					198 15 2
					£1,056 1 11

(II.)—BALANCE SHEET of ASSETS and LIABILITIES on 31st DECEMBER, 1866.

LIABILITIES.			ASSETS.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
Printing Journal for } December	93	7 6	Cash Balance	198	15 1
Making Index to above	4	4 -	Investments, £1,100 Stock, viz.:-		
		97 11 6	New 3 per Cents. } (£771 4s. 8d.) ... }	£742	12 1
Lighting.....	2	1 7	3 per Cent. Consols } (£328 15s. 4d.) }	300	- -
Miscellaneous Printing	3	19 -			1,042 12 1
		6 - 7	Property (Estimated Value):-		
Balance in favour of Society ...	1,877	15 1	Books in Library	£400	
			Journals in Stock	200	
			Furniture	100	
					700 - -
			Arrears recoverable (say)	40	- -
		£1,981 7 2			£1,981 7 2

“ *Auditors’ Report for 1866.*

“ STATISTICAL SOCIETY,

“ 12, ST. JAMES’S SQUARE,

“ *London, 7th February, 1867.*

“ The Auditors appointed to examine the Accounts of the Statistical Society for the year 1866, herewith

“ REPORT :—

“ That they have carefully compared the Entries in the Books with the several *Vouchers* for the same, from 1st January, 1866, to the 31st December, 1866, and find them correct, showing the *Receipts* (including a Balance of 301*l.* 14*s.* 7*d.* from 1865) to have been 1,056*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.*, and the *Payments* 857*l.* 6*s.* 9½*d.*, leaving a Balance in favour of the Society of 198*l.* 15*s.* 1½*d.*

“ They have also had laid before them, an estimate made by the Council, of the *Assets* and *Liabilities* of the Society, the *former* amounting to 1,981*l.* 7*s.* 2*d.*, and the *latter* to 103*l.* 12*s.* 1*d.*,—showing a Balance in favour of the Society of 1,877*l.* 15*s.* 1*d.*

“ They further find that at the end of the year 1865, the number of Fellows was 367, of whom 21 Died, Withdrew, or became Defaulters; and 18 new Fellows were elected during the year 1866, leaving 364 as the number on the list on the 31st December, 1866.

“ HENRY G. BOHN,	} <i>Auditors.”</i>
“ FRAS. JOURDAN,	
“ F. L. COTTON,	

On the MILITARY CONSCRIPTION of FRANCE.
By MAJOR-GENERAL BALFOUR, C.B., *Royal Artillery.*

[Read before the Statistical Society, the 19th of February, 1867.]

CONTENTS:

	PAGE		PAGE
Introduction	216	XVIII.—Dispensations	254
I.—Origin of Conscription	217	XIX.—Exoneration	258
II.—Recruiting Resources of France ..	219	XX.—Substitution	260
III.—Exemptions Claimed by Foreigners Residing in France.....	222	XXI.—Remplacement	261
IV.—Comparative Population and Re- cruiting Resources of Various Countries	224	XXII.—Army Dotation Fund; or, Caisse de Dotation	265
V.—Civil or Territorial Divisions of France	233	XXIII.—Formation and Apportionment of Contingent	268
VI.—Territorial and Military Divisions of France.....	235	XXIV.—Calling out Second Portion of Contingent.....	270
VII.—Composition of French Army	236	XXV.—Putting in motion of Contingent ..	271
VIII.—Exclusion from Military Service ..	238	XXVI.—Varying Strength of Contingent ..	272
IX.—Length of Service	238	XXVII.—Proportion of Military Strength and of Contingent to Popula- tion	272
X.—Height of French Soldiers	238	XXVIII.—Composition and Training of Reserve	273
XI.—Instruction	239	XXIX.—Voluntary Enlistment	276
XII.—Classes and Professions.....	239	XXX.—Re-engaging of Soldiers before and after Liberation from the Service.....	279
XIII.—Communal Census-taking.....	239	XXXI.—Invaliding	281
XIV.—Inclusion of Youths Omitted in Former Years	240	XXXII.—Liberation	281
XV.—Drawing by Lot in Cantons	242	XXXIII.—Misdemeanours.....	283
XVI.—Proceedings of the Councils of Revi- sion	242	XXXIV.—Conclusion	289
XVII.—Exemptions	246		

Introduction.

IN laying before the Statistical Society a paper on the French conscription, on which the constitution and efficiency of the army of that great country are based, I am well aware that it is a very complicated question which has led to grave differences of opinion amongst the ablest statesmen. The examination of such a vast subject is surrounded with intricacies, entailing great labour and research on the inquirer, and in writing thereon it is extremely difficult for a foreigner, especially one who has not personally witnessed the working of the system, to avoid mistakes. I must, therefore, entreat indulgence for any inaccuracies that may have occurred, in spite of every care. I have had difficulty in obtaining English books of reference, and, after consulting the best within reach, I have met with grave discrepancies, both as regards statements and figures, which can hardly be reconciled.

The highest authority on the details of the French conscription is that of our colleague, Monsieur Maurice Block, to whom I desire to make my best acknowledgments for the assistance derived from his labours. The annual reports of the French War Minister on the recruiting of the army are of great value; indeed I cannot too strongly speak in praise of these clear and elaborate works. The

subject of the French conscription, as treated on in our English works, is greatly wanting in details. I have now endeavoured in part to supply this want; but in doing so have no doubt fallen into errors which might have been avoided, by confining myself to generalities.

The conscription of France, having been in force for many years, has accommodated itself to the habits of the people, and most of the arrangements are well understood; but the written rules are not sufficient to enable any one—unless from personal observation—to master the subject so as to write very accurately on the practical effects of the conscription. The principal points connected with the conscription are: first, the care with which the available resources of France for supplying men for the army are officially ascertained, and secondly, the effect which this demand has on the population of the country.

The extent and power of the machinery employed in working the conscription, is not generally understood in England. The duties connected with the conscription are confided to high officers of the State. The whole civil administration of the Provinces, having vast authority over all the country, is employed in carrying on the system. This powerful machinery is annually put in motion by decree of the sovereign, for the purpose of bringing the whole male population of France, who have completed the age of 20 years, and are fit to bear arms, under the obligation of service, either in the military or marine forces.

I must first briefly refer to the origin of the conscription in France, premising, however, that it is not, as generally supposed in England, by any means the sole source of recruiting the army.

I.—*Origin of the Conscription.*

During the French Revolution, the organisation of the army was greatly modified. The constitution of 1791 rendered military service obligatory on all able-bodied citizens capable of carrying arms, under the title of National Guards. The law of 24th February, 1793, put in permanent requisition all Frenchmen of from 18 to 40 years of age, unmarried or widowers without children; but this was soon replaced by the law of 19th Fructidor, An IV, which introduced the conscription, and made it the principal mode of recruiting the army. The conscription comprised all youths from 20 to 25 years of age, who were to be divided into five classes—of 20, 21, 22 years of age, and so on. The Government, according to its wants, called out these men, beginning with the first (those of 20 years of age) and with the youngest of each class. The five classes might successively be called out according to the wants of the State. In time of peace, the conscripts were only obliged to serve till they were 25 years old; but in time of war, the duration of service was unlimited. The

Government was empowered to grant furloughs when this might be done without inconvenience. There was no exemption of any kind, except in favour of those who had married before the enactment of the law; or who had already paid their debt of service in preceding wars. This law was intended to provide for all ordinary cases, but in extraordinary cases, when the country should be declared in danger, the Government was to have a right, as in 1793, to the entire population. Recourse was again to be had to the levy *en masse*. At this time, and under the First Empire, the conscription was applied not only, as at present, to the youths who in each year completed 20 years of age and formed the *class* of the following year, but also retrospectively to those of former classes who had escaped being drawn into the Army.

Under the Restoration it was attempted, but in vain, to abandon the conscription. The law of 10th March, 1818, enacted that voluntary enlistment should in future be the principal mode of recruiting, the levy being only an accessory, and that the army should only be so recruited in case of an insufficiency of men by voluntary enlistment. The principle was, however, overruled by circumstances.

The law of 1818 fixed the period of active service at six years, and the number to be annually called out by drawing by lot, at 40,000 men; which would have given in six years, an effective force of 240,000, reduced by the deduction of *non-valides*, to 200,000. After their liberation, the soldiers were to be incorporated for a second period of six years in veteran legions, forming a kind of reserve, subject to exercises in time of peace, and liable to territorial service in time of war. At the moment when those first liberated were about to return to their homes, the war in Spain, a most unpopular enterprise, broke out; and the bad feeling shown by the veterans on that occasion furnished an excuse for condemning the system of reserves. A new law, passed in 1825, raised the duration of active service to eight years, and the annual levy to 60,000 men; which would have produced a much greater effect on the strength of the army, but for the system of granting unlimited leave having just then been entered upon. These calls of 60,000 men, exceeded the powers of the population, because they had to be met by the limited number of youths whose births corresponded to the times of the great wars of the Empire; and in 1827 the required number could not be obtained.

To the law of 1825 succeeded that of the 21st March, 1832, which still forms the basis of legislation for the recruiting of the army: with modifications introduced by the laws of 26th April, 1855, and 17th March, 1858. The two fundamental principles of this legislation are, first, that every Frenchman owes military service to the State, and shall, therefore, on the completion of 20 years

of age, be inscribed on the drawing list, and take his chance of being drawn for the conscription; but that having once escaped being drawn, he shall not again be liable. Secondly, that no one can be admitted into the army unless he has the qualifications of a Frenchman. There are, however, some corps composed of foreigners, subject to special laws, ordinarily maintained in Algeria, and only called into France in time of war. For these the recruits are obtained by voluntary enlistments, and apparently in sufficient numbers to maintain the established strength.

II.—*Recruiting Resources of France.*

The efficient maintenance of the French army being dependent on the number of youths who survive to complete 20 years of age, out of those born in France, it is important to show the available resources of that country, and to contrast them with those of other States.

The law fixes the age at which every Frenchman is bound to respond to the obligation of military service at 20 years, completed on or before the 31st December of each year. All the youths of that age form the "class" from which the contingent of the following year is drawn by lots; but as the drawings take place in the year following that in which the youngest of the class completes his twentieth year, the average age of the conscripts is at least $20\frac{1}{2}$ years.

It should be borne in mind, that the number of youths who every year attain the age of 20 years, as shown in the annual census tables, which are here designated as the "rectified class," is somewhat below the actual number; because, the whole number who reach this age must, before the time comes for their being inscribed on the census tables, be somewhat reduced by death; and, further, because the lists always contain some chances of omission, either by the efforts of youths to escape the drawing, or by the oversight of the municipal magistrates entrusted with the census taking. There are besides a certain number of youths, who, although born in France, are foreigners by reason of the nationality of their parents, most of whom at the last moment claim the benefit of their alienism, and are erased from the drawing lists. These deductions having been made, the rectified lists are entered in the annual census tables.

In order to show the numbers who survive to complete 20 years of age, as contrasted with the number of males born, I have availed myself of the following useful table, drawn from the "Statistique Générale" of France for the series of years from 1800 to 1839. I have added the operations since 1839 up to 1844, obtained from the annual statistical returns.

The number of youths omitted from the class to which they

Table showing the Number of Males Born in France in each Year—Contd.

Number of Males Born.		Youths of Rectified Class, subject, on Completing 20 Years, to the Conscription, and Drawn for.		Proportion of Survivors at the end of 20 Years to Births.		Youths Left Out of Class to which belonging, and Included in Classes of after years.		Number of Youths of Complete Class Formed by Adding Numbers Omitted.		
In the Year.	Numbers.	In what year.	Numbers.	Annual Proportion of Survivors.	Quinquennial Proportion of Survivors.	To what Year's Class properly Belonging	Numbers omitted from Class of the Year.	Completed Number of Youths of the Class of the Year.	Corrected Proportion of Survivors to Births.	Quinquennial Proportion of Survivors.
1830	496,914	1850	305,712	61·52	60·84	1850	2,377	308,089	62·	61·31
'31	509,220	'51	311,218	61·12		'51	2,492	313,710	61·60	
'32	483,249	'52	295,762	61·20		'52	2,309	298,071	61·72	
'33	501,059	'53	301,295	60·13		'53	2,225	303,520	60·57	
'34	508,718	'54	306,622	60·27		'54	2,420	309,042	60·75	
1835	512,368	1855	317,855	62·03	61·59	1855	2,468	320,323	62·52	62·05
'36	504,416	'56	310,289	61·51		'56	2,252	312,541	61·96	
'37	485,721	'57	294,761	60·69		'57	2,263	297,024	61·11	
'38	495,820	'58	305,339	61·58		'58	2,220	307,559	62·03	
'39	493,172	'59	306,314	62·11		'59	2,337	308,651	62·51	
1840	489,424	1860	312,204	63·83	64·04	1860	1,913	314,117	64·18	64·42
'41	502,716	'61	321,455	63·94		'61	1,760	323,215	64·28	
'42	506,450	'62	323,070	63·77		'62	1,433	324,503	64·27	
'43	502,927	'63	325,127	64·64		'63	1,496	326,623	64·49	
1844	492,703	1864	321,561	65·26	—	1864	—	—	—	—
Total to 1839	19,586,031	—	11,919,254	60·85	—	—	68,617	8,292,719*	61·70	—
Total to 1843	2,001,517	—	1,281,856	64·04	—	—	5,106	1,268,962*	64·29	—
Total	21,587,548	—	13,201,110	61·15	—	—	73,723	9,579,681	62·02	—

* These totals comprise the numbers completing their twentieth year in and subsequently to 1833, and corrected by the numbers discovered to have been omitted from the drawing in the year of their class.

It will be seen by this table, that the total number of male births registered in France during forty years, from 1800 to 1839, was 19,586,031; and from 1840 to 1843 there were 2,001,517. The registration of births in France being compulsory, the numbers thus recorded may be relied on with more certainty than those in the United Kingdom, excepting Scotland, where registration is enforced, under a penalty. The male births, as above stated, appear to be exclusive of those still-born; but include both legitimate and illegitimate children.

The aggregate number comprised in the rectified lists of the classes of the forty years—extending from 1820 to 1859, was 11,919,254, and from 1860 to 1863 the number was 1,281,856. The strictness with which the lists for the conscription are pre-

pared, is a guarantee as to the almost entire correctness of the number of survivors of 20 years of age, as above stated. On the average of the first forty years of this century, out of 100 male births, there survived at the expiration of twenty years, 60·85 per cent. Since 1860 the ratio of survivors, out of those born from 1840 to 1843, has been 64·04 per cent.

The fluctuations of the rate of survivors is also shown in the table. The maximum variation between the quinquennial averages of the period from 1820 to 1860, was 3·60 per cent. The number of survivors was greatest between 1830 and 1834; but from 1860 to 1863 the ratio has been higher than at any prior date. On an analysis of the tables, the different parts of France show considerable variations as regards the rate of survivors. The prominent feature is, the larger number of survivors at 20 years of age in the agricultural departments, and the relatively small number in those where either commerce or trade have crowded the population together; but space prevents me from entering into further details.

III.—*Exemptions claimed by Foreigners residing in France.*

In order fully to explain the operation of the conscription, it is necessary to state that the population of France, as above given, according to the census of 1861, comprised a total of 521,640 foreigners,—viz., 15,259 naturalised in France,—497,071 residing in France, belonging to fifteen nationalities,—and 9,290 whose nationality was not ascertained; giving a proportion of 1 foreigner to 76 inhabitants, and to 74 French. The number of foreigners had, therefore, considerably increased since 1851, when it was found to be 378,561, giving a proportion of 1 to 95 inhabitants and to 93 French.

The following table shows the number of the two sexes in the year 1861:—

Foreigners.	Population.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.
Naturalised in France	10,668	4,591	15,259
Foreigners residing in France	285,953	211,138	497,091
Nationality not ascertained	5,599	3,691	9,290
Total.....	302,220	219,420	521,640

In countries where all the youths are considered, as soon as they complete the age of 20 years, as the property of the State, for the preservation of its honour and safety, the exemptions from service

claimed by sons of foreigners, become of importance. Every youth born in France, of foreign parents, is liable to the obligations imposed on all by the recruiting laws, unless he can show fair ground for exemption; at the same time, he is admitted to the enjoyment of the civil rights, provided he claims the title of a Frenchman in the year of his majority. The annual reports of the Minister of War to the Emperor, invariably detail the number of sons of foreigners who in each year are struck off the census tables, or the drawing lists of the class of the year, having obtained exemption on the ground of alienism; as also the number retained on the lists, as having been admitted to the benefits of citizenship of France by virtue of article 9 of the Code Napoleon; and the numbers of both classes are compared with those of the previous year. The proportion which the whole number of youths of 20 years of age in France bear to the total population may be stated at about 1 in 125; and at that rate, the number of foreigners given above ought to supply annually nearly 4,000 youths for the military service. As will be seen, however, by the following table, for a series of years from 1840 up to 1864, the number of sons of foreigners who claim the benefits of citizenship, is far below the number of those who claim exemption from military service.

The numbers available at the age of 20 are below the due proportion as above estimated, but no very material nor progressive increase appears in the numbers struck off, until 1860; when the report on recruiting for that year called attention to the augmentation of the numbers who had pleaded exemption on the ground of alienism, during the three preceding years.

Numerical Statement of the Sons of Foreigners who have been Inscribed on the Census Lists, or of the Drawing of the Classes of Different Years, showing the Numbers Struck Out of the Lists, and the Numbers Kept On.

Year in which the Lists were Examined.	Year to which Class Belongs.	Numbers of Sons of Foreigners, showing the Numbers		
		Struck Off the Lists.	Kept On, as Possessing the Benefit of Article 9 Code Napoleon.	Total of
1841.....	1840	1,307	310	1,617
'42.....	'41	1,183	264	1,447
'43.....	'42	1,074	314	1,388
'44.....	'43	1,149	344	1,503
'45.....	'44	1,210	315	1,525
'46.....	'45	1,218	416	1,634
'47.....	'46	1,158	388	1,546
'48.....	'47	935	438	1,373
'49.....	'48	1,038	247	1,285
'50.....	'49	922	447	1,369

Numerical Statement of the Sons of Foreigners—Contd.

Year in which the Lists were Examined.	Year to which Class Belongs.	Numbers of Sons of Foreigners, showing the Numbers		
		Struck off the Lists.	Kept On, as Possessing the Benefit of Article 9 Code Napoleon.	Total of
1851.....	1850	926	477	1,403
'52.....	'51	1,015	546	1,561
'53.....	'52	860	576	1,436
'54.....	'53	936	451	1,387
'55.....	'54	1,011	426	1,437
'56.....	'55	932	473	1,405
'57.....	'56	973	737	1,710
'58.....	'57	1,004	539	1,543
'59.....	'58	1,043	546	1,589
'60.....	'59	1,150	605	1,755
1861.....	1860	883	737	1,620
'62.....	'61	990	690	1,680
'63.....	'62	903	618	1,581
'64.....	'63	907	646	1,553

With a view to diminish the numbers who thus escaped from military service in France, the plan was adopted of tracing out, in virtue of the circular of 10th December, 1852, and reporting to their respective Governments, those who repudiated French citizenship. The number thus reported in 1860 was 128; and the same course was adopted in each succeeding year. It was hoped that, being thus forced to conform to the recruiting law, either in one country or the other, youths who plead alienism would in future elect for France, where they reside, and have their personal interests; and the reports of the years subsequent to 1860 state that the course adopted had been productive of good results.

It will be seen from the above, that the efficiency of the French conscription is mainly attributable to the close scrutiny made of the number of youths who may be liable for service. The strict registration of all births in France gives to the administration an accurate knowledge of the number of youths born in the country; and the close inquiry made into the claims of the sons of foreigners to exemption, is a good illustration of the effective way in which the duty is carried out.

IV.—*Comparative Population and Recruiting Resources of Various Countries.*

The latest available statistical reports on the population of France and the United States, contrast the resources of different countries in population, showing the density, and rates of increase.

The comparative numbers of the people of different countries,

are frequently referred to as indicating military strength, and the following table, drawn from the 1864 report of the French "Statistique Générale," will, I hope, afford a pretty accurate view of the population, male and female, of the United Kingdom, France, the United States, Austria, and Prussia, at different periods during the past thirty-five years :—

Total Population (Male and Female) of—

Years of Census.	United Kingdom, including Channel Islands.*	France.	United States.	Austria, including Lombardy and Venetia.	Prussia.
1821	—	30,461,875	—	—	—
'31	24,132,294	32,569,223	—	—	—
'35	—	—	12,719,497	—	—
'36	—	33,540,910	—	—	—
'37	—	—	—	35,878,864	14,098,125
1840	—	—	14,581,998	36,950,401	14,928,501
'41	26,833,496	34,230,178	—	—	—
'43	—	—	—	—	15,471,084
'46	—	35,400,486	—	37,443,033	16,112,938
'49	—	—	—	—	16,331,187
1850	—	—	19,987,563	—	—
'51	27,533,755	35,783,170	—	36,514,466	—
'52	—	—	—	—	16,935,420
'55	—	—	—	—	17,202,831
'56	—	36,039,364	—	—	—
'57	—	—	—	—	—
'58	—	—	—	—	17,672,609
1860	—	—	26,956,962	—	—
'61	—	36,717,254	—	—	—
'61	29,070,932	37,386,313†	—	—	18,491,211
'63	—	—	—	37,754,856	—
'66	30,078,857	38,067,094	—	—	—

* Exclusive of the portion of the army and navy and merchant seamen abroad.

† After the annexation of Nice and Savoy.

Note.—The population of Lombardy and Venetia, included in Austria, was 2,576,185.

The superficial area, in square kilometres, of these countries respectively, and the proportion of population, per kilometre, are shown below :—

	Superficial Area in Square Kilometres.	Number of Inhabitants per Square Kilometre.
United Kingdom	313,675	95·8
France	543,051	70·
United States	6,356,411	4·24
Austria	667,143	56·59
Prussia	230,138	80·00

The introduction to the report on the 1860 census of the United States, points out that the power and active means of defence of a nation lie mainly in the number of males between 20 and 40 years of age; the nation which has the largest number between those ages, having the largest available force. A few younger, and a few older, no doubt, enter or remain in the army; but they are less able to bear hardships, and are less reliable under the severe privations and exposure of campaigning. At any rate, the period from 15 to 50 years embraces all that can, even on emergency, be drawn from the population for military service.

I may remark that there are many things besides numbers of men of suitable age required to make an efficient army. A good system of finance, good military administration, and the good-will of the people will be found to be essential. A comparison of the numbers of males of various intermediate ages between the two extreme limits, of which the following table gives an approximate view, is, however, in the opinion of those who view many men as military strength, the best means of contrasting the resources for military service which these several countries possess:—

Males. Ages.	United Kingdom.	France.	United States.	Austria.	Prussia.
Under 15	5,141,313	5,111,220	5,470,999	6,371,006	3,592,391
Above 60 	1,008,827	1,912,997	596,894	999,859	539,244
Total	6,150,140	7,024,217	6,067,893	7,370,865	4,131,635
15 to 20	1,444,235	1,631,317	1,402,432	1,875,763	541,390
20 to 25	1,290,840	1,498,735	—	—	—
19 „ 24	—	—	—	—	825,814
20 „ 26	—	—	—	2,310,664	—
25 „ 30	1,041,024	1,459,666	—	—	—
24 „ 30	—	—	—	—	855,161
20 „ 30	—	—	2,512,116	—	—
30 „ 35	925,244	1,398,939	—	—	—
35 „ 40	792,316	1,338,259	—	—	—
30 „ 40	—	—	1,878,302	—	1,215,963
26 „ 40	—	—	—	3,827,562	—
24 „ 32	—	—	—	—	35,363
32 „ 39	—	—	—	—	6,157
Total 20 to 40....	4,046,424	5,695,599	4,390,418	6,138,226	2,938,458
40 to 50	1,396,175	2,402,939	1,227,858	—	974,689
50 „ 60	1,037,765	1,851,566	741,348	—	626,241
40 to 60	2,433,940	4,254,505	1,969,206	3,299,387	1,600,930
Ages unknown ...	2,679	39,638	14,079	—	—
Grand total ...	14,097,418	18,645,276	13,844,028	18,684,241	9,212,413

According to the above table the future resources of the United Kingdom are greater than those of France, owing to the number of young males of 15 years and under now surviving in the former country being greater. The proportion of these ages is also larger than in Austria, relatively with the population. The smaller number of young men above those ages, in the United Kingdom, as compared with France, may be attributed to the vast emigration of our youths, as also, to registration not being so strictly enforced. These tables of ages are drawn from the 1861 census. Since then another return has been published both in France and England, derived from the ascertained results of the subsequent five years. From this it appears, that the increase of population, though considerable in France, is yet larger in the United Kingdom: our population having been augmented by 900,000, whereas the French population have only increased by 686,000. Thus the number annually born in our population of thirty millions, exceeds those born in France with a population of more than thirty-eight millions. The exodus of our young men to the colonies and United States, alone prevents the United Kingdom being able to supply a larger number of men between 20 and 40 years of age than France can furnish.

In order to draw a comparison between the recruiting resources of England and France, I have, through the obliging aid of our colleague, Mr. Hammick, obtained from Mr. Williams, of the Registrar-General's Department, the table at p. 228, showing the actual and probable number of survivors at 20 years of age out of the males born in England and Wales for a series of twenty-eight years. The experienced aid of Dr. Farr has also been afforded in the examination of the table.*

By the English life rate, the proportion of males surviving at the of age 20 out of 100 born, is shown as 65·19; but, owing to the registration of births, especially in the earlier years of the period, having been defective, and to the emigration of youths, it is impossible to calculate how many attaining the age of 20 will remain in England, and be available. Assuming, however, that the births were all registered, and allowing nothing for the element of emigration, the results for each year would be as returned in col. 2 of the following table.

A table for France, framed on the like basis, has been added, in order to contrast the proportion of survivors to births in the two countries. The number of survivors in France of the age of 20 out of those born in 1842 and previous years, is drawn from the census lists twenty years later, of the youths liable to the conscription. It must be observed, however, that the proportion of survivors in France has increased since 1860, approximating more nearly to the

* I desire through the aid of these gentlemen, aided by my friend Major-General Hannington, to extend the inquiries into this part of the question.

proportion obtaining in England. The number of survivors for the subsequent years is therefore calculated on the assumed rate of 65 per cent., which is the highest that could be claimed by France, thereby rendering the comparison very favourable for that country. I regret being unable to contrast the whole number of males of the United Kingdom with those of France; but the fact that the births in England and Wales, which contain only two-thirds of the entire population of the kingdom, and a little more than half the population of France, bear a very favourable contrast with the births out of the French population of thirty-eight millions, is satisfactory.

Years of Birth.	1	2	3	4
	England and Wales.		France.	
	Number of <i>Male Births</i> Registered in England and Wales.	Numbers Surviving, and likely to Survive, at Age 20, at the English Life Rate.	Number of <i>Male Births</i> Registered in France.	Numbers Surviving, and likely to survive, at Age of 20.
1838	236,941	154,462	489,424	307,559
'39	252,090	164,338	493,172	308,651
1840	257,453	167,834	489,424	314,117
'41	262,714	171,263	502,716	323,215
'42	265,204	172,890	506,450	324,503
'43	270,577	176,390	502,927	326,902
'44	277,436	180,861	492,703	320,256
1845	278,418	181,501	504,878	328,170
'46	293,146	191,102	496,009	322,405
'47	275,658	179,702	460,910	299,591
'48	288,346	187,973	482,473	313,607
'49	295,158	192,414	506,057	325,937
1850	302,834	197,418	489,802	318,371
'51	314,968	205,328	496,606	322,793
'52	319,050	207,990	494,856	321,656
'53	313,756	204,538	482,316	313,505
'54	324,069	211,261	473,834	307,992
1855	323,960	211,190	463,440	310,236
'56	335,541	218,740	488,371	317,441
'57	339,998	221,646	482,336	313,518
'58	334,989	218,380	496,492	322,719
'59	352,662	229,901	522,116	339,375
1860	349,799	228,035	489,646	319,279
'61	355,972	232,059	—	—
'62	363,534	236,988	—	—
'63	372,019	242,520	—	—
'64	377,719	246,236	—	—
1865	381,444	248,664	—	—

The above table must, however, be accepted with reservations,

because the maximum numbers likely to be available in France twenty years subsequent to 1860, may be considered to be liberally estimated. Whereas, the number of youths who will survive to complete the age of 20 years, out of those born in England and Wales in 1865, may be considered as very closely estimated. Only a smaller number of those youths will be available in the kingdom on account of emigration, but a gradual increase may justly be expected to follow from the large annual increase shown of late years in the number of males born in England and Wales. These were only 236,941 in 1838, against 381,444, in 1865. This augmentation is in marked contrast with France, where 489,424 males were born in 1838, and in 1860 only about the same number, viz., 489,646.

According to the Registrar-General's report for 1866, the number of male and female births in the United Kingdom, was 1,061,819, considerably above the largest number that have occurred in France in any year since 1800; and bearing in mind that registration is not compulsory in the United Kingdom (except in Scotland), the number above given for the United Kingdom may be considered as below the actual number.

The births in the Channel Islands ought, I believe, to be added to the above. These may be taken at about 5,181, raising the total number of births in the United Kingdom and Channel Islands, in 1866, to about 1,067,000.

The largest numbers born in France, since the commencement of the century, were in 1859 and 1861. The births in those years were respectively 1,017,896 and 1,005,078; the latter 62,000 below the number born in the United Kingdom and Channel Islands in 1866. The births in France, in the last years for which information is available, do not show any material increase over those of the first years of the century. For instance, the total number of births in 1864, as stated by our Registrar-General, was only 993,188, about 70,000 below the number of births in the United Kingdom in 1866.

In France the proportion of births during the years between 1855 and 1860, was 1 to 37 inhabitants.

In 1838, the number of births registered in the whole United Kingdom gave a rate of 1 to 33 inhabitants, and in 1866 it was 1 to 28; but in Scotland, where registration is enforced under penalty of a fine of 20s., the birth-rate was considerably higher. And if we apply the ratio of births to population, obtaining in Scotland in 1865, viz., 3.606 per cent., to the entire population of the United Kingdom (containing thirty millions), it would give about 1,180,000 births, or nearly 1 to 26 of the population.

Adopting the usual English proportion of 105 males to about 100 females, the 1,067,000 births in 1866 would comprise about 567,000 males; and the number of survivors out of these at

20 years of age in 1886 would, at the English life-rate be above 369,000.

In order to compare these results with those in France, I must take the latest year, 1860, for which I have official information. The male births registered in that year were 489,646, and as registration is strictly enforced in France, the number may be taken as quite correct. According to previous experience in France, the number surviving out of these at the end of twenty years, or in 1880, would be about 308,000. In 1838, for instance, there were nearly the same number of males born (489,424), and out of these, in 1858, the census tables prepared for the army conscription, showed 307,550 youths of 20 years complete, surviving.

The births in France in the year 1864 were 993,188; and taking the French ratio of 104 males born to 100 females, this would give about 486,857 males, being smaller than in any of the previous twenty-five years, excepting in the four years 1853, 1854, 1855, and 1857. The fewest births were in 1855, being then only 902,336, of whom 463,440 were males; actually less than in 1800, in which year there were 464,562 males born, and in 1812 and 1813 the numbers were respectively 457,012 and 463,161. The male adults of France having in these years been heavily drawn on to support the armies of the First Empire, marriages must have been comparatively few; and the continuance of the comparatively low birth-rate, indicates that the conscription has the effect of preventing, or at any rate delaying, marriage.

The male survivors at the end of twenty years out of the males born in France in 1800, 1812, and 1813, were only 288,828, 277,477, and 285,805 respectively; these being amongst the lowest available numbers, since the beginning of this century. It may be assumed that 306,000 out of the 486,875 males born in 1864, will survive at the end of twenty years. This proportion is perhaps more favourable than that deduced from the prior experience of a series of years; but the number is still about 63,000 below that which may be calculated on, out of the males born in the United Kingdom in 1866, at the English rate of surviving, and not greatly in excess of the minimum number during this century.

The proportion of deaths in France and the United Kingdom respectively, is also worthy of remark.

The Registrar-General's report shows that in 1863 the death-rate in the United Kingdom was 23.03 per thousand, and in 1866 it had increased to 23.62.

In France the death-rate varied considerably between 1853 and 1860. It was highest in 1854, being 27.60 per thousand; and lowest in 1860, when it was 21.40 per thousand, this being the lowest average during a period of sixty years. The average for the years

between 1851 and 1855 was 24·10 per thousand, and during the years from 1856 to 1860 it was 23·90 per thousand. There is, therefore, no material difference in the death-rate in the two countries; but this equality shows clearly that the difference in the population of the two countries is due to the difference in the birth-rate.

According to the Registrar-General's report for 1866, the births and deaths in the United Kingdom, were respectively 1,066,819 and 689,273 in number; but adding the deaths and births in the Channel Islands, the total deaths will be about 692,000, against 1,071,000 births, which gives a proportion of 65 deaths to 100 births. That is to say, 35 per cent. of the births, or about 380,000, may be viewed as the annual addition to the population. The deaths in Great Britain alone, are shown in the report of the Registrar-General to have been in 1864 only 569,834, against 852,720 births, giving an excess of 282,886 births.

In France, on the other hand, the ratio of deaths to births was high during the eight years from 1853 to 1860. The lowest ratio was in 1860, being 81·69 deaths to 100 births. In the years 1854 and 1855 there was an actual decrease of population; the ratio for these two years having been respectively 107·51 and 103·95 deaths to 100 births. On the average of the eight years, the deaths were 93 to 100 births, giving an annual increase of population of only 7 per cent. The deaths in 1864 were 823,185, against 993,188 births, leaving a surplus of only 70,003.

In France there was only, on an average of several years, an addition of 66,000 annually to the population, against about 380,000 in the United Kingdom and Channel Islands, in the one year 1866. An increase of population has, however, taken place of late years in France in two ways. The excess of births over deaths during the whole of the five years from 1st June, 1856, to 1st June, 1861, was 525,612, or about 105,122 annually; the actual increase of population was, however, 577,890, giving an average of 115,576 annually, thus showing that immigration had during the five years added to the population of France.

If, however, the average were extended, so as to include the years 1854 and 1855, when the number of deaths exceeded the number of births in France, the annual rate of increase to the population would have been considerably lowered. In a slowly-increasing or almost stationary population, like that of France, the average of the past is especially important. In the United Kingdom, on the other hand, with births and marriages in an ascending ratio, for a series of years, the latest proportions, even if more favourable than on the mean of prior years, may safely be adopted.

It must be remembered also, with reference to the rate of increase in the population of the United Kingdom, that emigration

annually withdraws a number of men equal to about two-thirds of the number who every year become liable to military service in France. The number of emigrants from the United Kingdom in 1864 was 208,000: and, considering that the majority were adults, it will be seen that the drain was very heavy. The same number may be taken for 1866; but the increase of population in the United Kingdom, after deducting deaths and emigration, may still be taken at 170,000 in 1866. This rate would give in five years a permanent addition of 850,000 to the United Kingdom, against 525,612 in France during the same period. Thus, the thirty millions of the United Kingdom, even with emigration, increase more rapidly than the thirty-eight millions of France; and, therefore, the death-rate, though nearly alike in both countries, is far higher in France, when viewed in proportion to births, than in the United Kingdom.

The comparatively late period when marriages take place in France, which is no doubt in part attributable to the military conscription, must considerably affect the increase of population. Space will not admit of my here entering in great detail into this important point; but the greater extent of the future resources for recruiting in the United Kingdom, as compared with those of France, may be considered as due to the larger number also larger proportion of early marriages, as well as to the greater fecundity of marriage.

In France the marriages were, on the average of years, from 1800 to 1850, as 1 to 127 of the population; and on the mean of the ten years from 1851 to 1860, the ratio was 1 to 126 of the population, showing a slight increase of the marriage-rate. In England, marriages are yearly on the increase; and in 1864 the proportion was .868 to 100, or 1 marriage to 115 of the population.

As regards the proportion of births to marriages in the United Kingdom, the Registrar-General's report for 1866 states that the average to each marriage varies in different years; but shows 4.304 births in 1864 to each marriage. In France, the proportion of births to each marriage between 1853 and 1864 varied, the minimum being 3.04 in 1858, and the maximum 3.35 in 1864; considerably lower than the rate in the United Kingdom in the same year.

This view of the comparative inferiority of the resources of France in regard to population is in part confirmed by a French writer, in a very able article in the "*Revue des deux Mondes*" (vol. lxvii of February, 1867), entitled "*Le problème de l'Armée*," which has just come under my notice, and from which I quote the following:—

"Compared with the powers that surround her, France appears languishing, and even somewhat enfeebled; but she is in fact progressing, if compared only with herself. No doubt, considering only numerical increase, we are far behind Great Britain and the ancient German Confederation, where the population has gained

“ 50 per cent. between 1818 and 1861, and is in full course of development: but if you compare the progress of population with us at various epochs, there cannot be said to be any falling off; there is rather a certain degree of progress to record. The number of conscripts furnished by the same number of births, is greater at present than it was forty years ago. Better nourishment has in many departments strengthened the constitution, and increased the stature. Under the Restoration, when the demand for soldiers was the smallest, was there on the part of the examiners any tendency to multiply exemptions? I know not; I only find, that in order to obtain 1,000 youths fit for service, it was then necessary to set aside 927 conscripts in bad health or of insufficient height; whilst at present in selecting the same number of youths fit for service, only 690 are found diseased or under-sized. In 1839, the number of youths of 20 years of age who could neither read nor write, was 486 per thousand; whilst in 1864, it was only 268. A relative diminution in the number of births is noted, but deaths have diminished in a still greater proportion. On the whole it may be said of the French population, that it has gained in quality, if not in quantity. This is the kind of progress that was desired twenty years ago: but even this amelioration leaves sorrowful reflections, and France is still very far from the healthy condition which ought to be the normal state of a great nation.”

V.—*Civil or Territorial Divisions of France.*

As the efficiency of the French conscription depends on the accuracy of the communal census, a brief explanation of the civil divisions of France may assist in ensuring a right understanding of the whole system. The existing territorial division is based on the arrangements made in the year VIII, and comprises departments, arrondissements, cantons, and communes. Between 1816 and 1860, only the cantons and communes varied in number; the former being between the years 1836 and 1856, raised from 1,847 up to 2,850. In 1856 the census reports showed that France comprised 86 departments, sub-divided into 363 arrondissements, 2,850 cantons, and 36,826 communes. In 1861, prior to the annexation of Savoy and Nice, there were the same number of departments, arrondissements, and communes; but the number of cantons had increased. After the annexation, the 1861 census reports showed 89 departments, 373 arrondissements, 2,938 cantons, and 37,510 communes. The addition made by the annexation was 3 departments, 10 arrondissements, 73 cantons, and 721 communes. A change was also then made in the old boundaries, whereby the number of cantons was further increased by 13, altogether an increase of 86. The arrondissement of Grasse, which contains 8 cantons

and 59 communes, was separated from the department of Var, and attached to the territory of Nice, which was formed into the new department of the Maritime Alps.

With regard to communes, their number has varied as follows, according to the last six censuses :—

Year.	Number of Communes.	Year.	Number of Communes.
1836.....	37,140	1851.....	36,835
'41.....	37,040	'56.....	36,826
'46.....	36,819	'61.....	36,789*
		'61.....	37,510†

* Before the annexation of Nice and Savoy.

† After the annexation.

The following table gives the apportionment of the population, according to the census of 1861, between the communes, classed in the order of their importance :—

Number of Communes.	Population of Communes.	Total Population.	Average Population per Commune.	Proportion to whole Population of France.
				Per cent.
16,547	Below 500	5,058,418	306	13·53
11,757	From 500 to 1,000....	8,288,110	705	22·17
8,727	„ 1,000 „ 5,000....	15,330,389	1,757	41·00
298	„ 5,000 „ 10,000....	1,981,816	6,650	5·30
211	„ 10,000 „ 20,000....	1,488,437	13,409	3·98
49	„ 20,000 „ 50,000....	1,503,641	30,686	4·02
13	„ 50,000 „ 100,000....	835,538	64,272	2·24
7	Above 100,000	1,203,793	171,970	3·22
Paris 1	—	1,696,141	1,696,141	4·54
37,510	Containing population	37,386,313	997	100·00

The above table shows that nearly a third of the French population is located in the 28,304 communes, which have less than 500 and up to 1,000 inhabitants.

The largest proportion of the population—41 per cent.—is supplied by the communes having from 1,000 to 5,000 inhabitants. The next highest proportion, 22·17, comes from the communes of from 500 to 1,000; and then follow the communes of below 500, which give 13·53. These three alone furnish more than three-fourths of the population. The rest is divided rather unequally. But it must be observed that the population of Paris alone exceeds that of each of the categories of communes—taken separately—which have a population of above 10,000. It is especially remarkable that the total population of the thirteen communes, of from 50,000 to 100,000 inhabitants, does not amount to half that of Paris; and that the

total population of thirteen of the largest towns of France does not even equal it.

From this minute division of the population into small communities, the official authorities are able to acquire a personal knowledge of every youth who is liable to the conscription. The penalty of forfeiture of civil rights, which any evasion of the liability for military service entails, is also a powerful assistance in enforcing strict obedience to the law.

VI.—*Territorial and Military Divisions of France.*

Under the French system, the civil territorial divisions are also made the boundaries of the military commands of the French army. Indeed, many of the military arrangements are closely connected with the civil administration. Each of the twenty-two military divisions into which the troops in the interior of France are divided, covers the areas of from two to eight departments; the average number being about four departments to each military division. But subdivisions of the troops are so made, that the force occupying the area included in each department, forms a separate command under a general of brigade. The names of the French departments whose areas are contained in each military division, therefore indicate a corresponding number of subdivisional military commands: these military subdivisions being numbered according to the order in which the names of the departments in which they are located run alphabetically. The civil administrative divisions being thus the same as those of the military commands, the general officer of high military rank is placed in the eyes of the people of France side by side with the highest civil officer, the Prefet of the department. The importance of this arrangement is seen, by keeping in mind the connection which the recruiting of the army has with the civil institutions of the country. Until the system of exoneration was introduced in 1855, the recruiting of the army was almost entirely carried on by the civil functionaries: but since that law was passed the administrative *remplacement* under which soldiers are re-engaged, rests with the military department, and the civil functionaries only admit *remplaçants* when directed by the Minister of War.

VII.—*Composition of the French Army.*

The army of France is composed, first, of the effective force kept under the colours; and, secondly, of the reserve. The effective force under the colours consists of men usually drawn from the first portion of the annual contingent, the whole of the contingent being, however, liable to be called on to join the army—of men voluntarily enlisted—of soldiers who extend their service in the army, or re-engage within a certain period after their discharge—of sub-

stitutes—of *remplaçants*—and finally, of *gagistes*, or men paid by the day.

The following table shows that, during the last twenty-five years, the army of France has undergone great changes in respect to the proportions of the several classes serving in it:—

Return of the State of the Effectives of the Army on 1st January of each Year. Under is engaged in

On the 1st January of each Year.	Voluntary Engagements.						Number of Re-engaged			
	Under the Law of 21st March, 1832.	Per Cent.	Under the Law of 26th April, 1855.	Per Cent.	Total Number.	Per Cent.	Under the Law of 21st March, 1832.	Per Cent.	Under the Law of 26th April, 1855.	Per Cent.
	Number.		Number.				Number.		Number.	
1842....	32,665	8	—	—	32,665	8	11,825	3	—	—
'43....	34,297	10	—	—	34,297	10	11,729	3	—	—
'44....	34,668	11.14	—	—	34,668	11.14	12,043	3.87	—	—
1845....	37,341	12	—	—	37,341	12	12,066	4	—	—
'46....	40,900	12	—	—	40,900	12	12,500	4	—	—
'47....	42,810	12	—	—	42,810	12	12,615	4	—	—
'48....	46,031	14	—	—	46,031	14	13,261	4	—	—
'49....	58,226	14	—	—	58,226	14	13,338	3	—	—
1850....	67,618	17	—	—	67,618	17	15,243	4	—	—
'51....	63,182	17	—	—	63,182	17	16,347	5	—	—
'52....	—	—	—	—	59,432	17	—	—	—	—
'53....	59,577	18	—	—	59,577	18	19,066	6	—	—
'54....	57,473	19	—	—	57,473	19	20,095	6	—	—
1855....	66,490	13	—	—	66,490	13	20,108	4	—	—
'56....	70,295	13	—	—	70,295	13	33,280	6	—	—
'57....	62,733	12	4,812	1	67,545	13	6,218	1	37,095	7
'58....	52,206	16	5,978	2	58,184	14	2,546	1	44,549	14
'59....	57,714	16	7,198	2	64,912	18	1,686	—	48,860	14
1860....	70,660	12	8,630	2	79,290	14	1,381	—	54,112	10
'61....	55,197	13	9,807	2	65,004	15	1,260	—	74,677	18
'62....	52,504	12	14,260	3	66,764	15	1,482	—	102,861	24
'63....	49,391	12	16,520	4	65,911	16	2,115	—	109,151	24
'64....	45,250	12	16,515	4	61,765	16	2,135	—	103,927	27
1865....	48,610	13	17,114	5	65,724	18	2,890	1	98,908	25

In 1842 the conscripts formed 60 per cent. of the whole strength, and the *remplaçants* 26 per cent., making nearly 90 per cent. for these two classes. The large number of conscripts bore heavily on the population, and the *remplaçants* were viewed as injurious to the army, from their bad character. In 1865 the proportion of conscripts formed only 40 per cent. of the whole strength, and the *remplaçants* only 12 per cent. This latter class

appear to be yearly diminishing, and, in 1862, formed only 7 per cent. The substitutes have always been very few in number, never exceeding 2 per cent., and in the last year of the table they were only one per thousand.

Article 3 of the Law of 21st March, 1832, showing the Classes under which every Man the Service.

Soldiers.		Conscripts on their own Account.		Substitutes.		Remplaçants.		Gagistes on Wages.		Total Strength of Sous-officers, Corporals, and Soldiers under the Colours.
Total Number.	Per Cent.	Numbers.	Per Cent.	Numbers.	Per Cent.	Numbers.	Per Cent.	Numbers.	Per Cent.	
11,825	3	243,109	63	—	—	101,366	26	—	—	388,965
11,729	3	213,033	62	—	—	85,872	25	—	—	344,931
12,043	3·87	183,833	59·05	4,572	1·45	75,845	24·36	420	—	311,321
12,066	4	178,808	58	4,736	2	74,347	24	563	—	307,844
12,500	4	194,595	58	5,487	2	82,759	24	439	—	336,680
12,615	4	193,427	57	6,064	2	85,731	25	576	—	341,223
13,261	4	182,410	54	6,314	2	89,346	26	441	—	337,803
13,338	3	236,550	56	6,760	2	105,060	25	562	—	420,496
15,243	4	198,104	50	6,487	2	100,638	26	3,100	1	391,190
16,347	5	183,588	50	5,884	2	92,674	25	3,000	1	364,675
17,567	5	174,936	49	6,056	2	93,462	26	3,507	1	354,960
19,066	6	156,694	47	5,852	2	87,630	26	3,730	1	332,549
20,095	6	139,587	45	5,522	2	83,653	27	3,937	1	310,267
20,108	4	—	—	—	—	119,706	24	5,324	1	507,432
33,280	6	291,650	55	6,576	1	118,164	24	6,061	1	526,056
43,313	8	295,714	58	5,970	1	87,310	17	15,385	3	515,237
47,095	15	157,141	48	3,935	1	45,854	14	14,665	4	326,874
50,546	14	187,799	53	4,522	1	34,937	10	13,874	4	356,590
55,493	60	358,904	64	4,674	1	46,664	8	14,877	3	559,902
75,937	18	229,505	55	2,707	—	32,262	8	15,073	4	420,488
104,343	24	201,395	49	1,954	—	31,168	7	22,394	5	428,018
111,266	24	171,142	41	1,141	—	36,505	9	18,435	4	404,400
106,062	27	167,538	42	577	—	41,624	10	18,507	4	396,073
101,798	26	153,493	40	400	—	47,472	12	16,486	4	385,373

The numbers who voluntarily enter the army, on the other hand, have considerably augmented during the last twenty-five years. In 1842 they formed only 8 per cent. of the strength, are now 18 per cent., and are apparently on the increase. The most marked change is, however, in the number of soldiers who re-engage after their first period of service has expired. This class, which, in 1842, formed only 3 per cent. of the army strength, is now 26 per cent.

These great changes in the composition of the army, are due to the improvements made in the condition of the soldiers by the Emperor, and the encouragement given to them to remain in the service, under the law of April, 1855; and will be clearly seen by contrasting the first and last lines of the above table, showing the composition of the army in 1842 and 1864, the strength being nearly the same in both years.

The number of those serving under the designation of *gagistes* has also considerably increased, being now about 4 per cent. of the army strength, instead of, as in former years, only about one per thousand. These men are employed in the army, chiefly as musicians, and though not serving in the ranks as soldiers, yet, in the event of their being enrolled in the army, they are entitled to reckon as service the time passed as *gagistes*.

VIII.—*Exclusion from Military Service.*

All persons condemned to a personal or infamous punishment, as also those condemned to two years' imprisonment—at least when placed also by the sentence under the surveillance of the police, and shut out from civic, civil, and family rights—are excluded from the army as unworthy. There is no room for the table I have prepared; but this is not important, as the number is few.

IX.—*Length of Service.*

The duration of military service from 1818 to 1824 was twelve years, of which six were in the army and six in the veterans; and from 1825 to 1831 it was eight years; but since the law of 21st March, 1832, the period is seven years. In point of fact, however, the youths seldom join their corps till six months after the 1st of January, when the service begins to reckon, which reduces the actual service to six years and a-half; and in many cases it is still further shortened by the soldiers being sent home in anticipation of the legal period of discharge on the 31st December. The number of men belonging to the army of different periods of service is annually reported on by the War Minister. Want of space alone prevents me furnishing details on this head; which would be of great value in a purely military point of view.

X.—*Height of French Soldiers.*

The minimum height fixed by the law of 1818 was 1 metre 57 centimetres; it was lowered to 1 metre 56 centimetres by the law of 1832, and to 1 metre 55 centimetres by that of April, 1860. The number of men of different heights, both of the contingent and of the active army, are shown in the annual reports of the Minister of War, and the mean height of the whole army stated.

There is but little variation in respect to height from one year

to another, as would be seen from the table I have compiled for a series of years, if space admitted of its being inserted here.

XI.—*Instruction.*

The state of instruction of the youths composing the class and contingent of each year, is fully described in the annual reports of the Minister of War. The tables I have compiled, for a series of years, exhibit very marked progress, as showing the large numbers who are now able to read and write, but I cannot enter them here for want of space. This point alone would form an interesting paper. The state of instruction of the soldiers of the active army is also fully described, and supplies very useful details in connection with the advance in education in France.

XII.—*Classes or Professions.*

The number of men of the contingent of each year, drawn from the agricultural and skilled classes, divided under eleven different heads, is also fully shown in the annual reports of the Minister of War, but I have not space here to enter into the subject.

I now proceed to give a brief sketch of the various operations so carefully carried out in France, under which the conscription is enforced; commencing with—

XIII.—*Communal Census-taking.*

Every year, in the course of December, the mayor of each commune prepares the census tables of the youths of his commune, who must, at the end of the year, come within the recruiting law; and to this end he examines the civil registers of the State and other documents at his disposal, besides taking the declaration which the law requires from the youths or their relatives or guardians. The preparatory list thus drawn out is converted on the 1st of January into a census table. This table comprises, besides the youths of 20 years of age, the older ones who have been accidentally omitted from former classes. The names are inscribed in alphabetical order.

The stringency with which the obligation of military service is enforced at the prescribed age, is shown by the fact that although, since the time of the Convention, the registration of births has been most strictly enforced, yet the possible case of defective registration is fully provided for. Under article 7 of the law of 21st March, 1832, those youths who, according to general opinion, have attained the age required for the drawing, and who cannot before the drawing produce any official document establishing a different age, or who, in default of registry, cannot prove their age in conformity with article 46 of the civil code, are included in the drawing list, and obliged to follow the chance of the number they draw.

The census tables only become definitive when they have been

examined and decreed by the Sous-prefet, in presence of the mayors concerned. This operation takes place the same day as the drawing.

The youths absent receive special attention from the mayors, who satisfy themselves as to their existence. The particulars obtained, either from the relatives or the population, are set forth in the column of observations of the tables; and in case of the existence not being fully established, the names are struck out of the tables by direction of the Sous-prefets.

At a period fixed by decree, the census tables are published and posted up in each commune, with a notice of the place, day, and hour that their examination will be proceeded with; a notice which enforces the attendance of the youths, and their parents and guardians. This examination is public. The Sous-prefet has the census table read out, calls for, and listens to, the observations of the persons present, and decides after having taken the opinion of the mayors. He strikes out those excluded, and those of more than 30 years of age, who have been omitted from classes of previous years. He decides on most appeals; but in doubtful cases confines himself to sending them before the Council of Revision.

XIV.—*Inclusion of Youths Omitted in Former Years.*

An account is yearly kept of those youths who have accidentally or otherwise been omitted from the census table on which they should have been inscribed; the class to which they belong being exactly indicated in all official documents. As soon as the omission is discovered, their names are inscribed on the census table of the current year; unless, as rarely occurs, they have succeeded in escaping until the completion of their thirtieth year, when they become exempt from service. It will be seen by the following table, for a series of thirty years, that the numbers omitted from former classes, and inscribed on the lists of following classes, vary very little from year to year, having been between 2,000 and 2,700 out of an average class of 300,000. The majority of the omissions appear to be promptly discovered. The following return shows that 1,433 omitted from the class of 1862 were included in the 1863 class, and drawn in 1864. In that year 293 of the 1862 class were discovered and inscribed, but drawn in 1865; and every year some omissions would be remedied, until nearly all who should have been inscribed on the 1862 class were included in a subsequent class. The number who, without fraud, but merely from official neglect, escape being inscribed on the conscription lists, until they have attained the age of 30 years, and are eventually exempted from military service, is very small; not exceeding on the average of the twenty-two years from 1841 to 1864, about seven annually. This is one of many illustrations of the accurate and careful way in which the census lists are kept, and the close scrutiny made by the administrative officers.

Numerical Statement of Youths Omitted from the Census Tables of Various Years, but Subsequently Drawn.

Years in which Drawn.	Belonging to the Class of the Year.																				Total of Omitted Drawn in each Year.	Finally Exempted on Completing 30 Years of Age.										
	1833	1834	1835	1836	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	1847	1848	1849	1850	1851	1852			1853	1854	1855	1856	1857	1858	1859	1860	1861	1862
1835.....	1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1938	—
'36.....	460	2086	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2546	—	
'37.....	174	370	1929	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2473	—	
'38.....	208	258	576	2008	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3050	—	
'39.....	59	81	156	486	1951	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2733	—	
'40.....	44	52	98	193	405	1878	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2670	—	
'41.....	22	43	58	103	178	445	1928	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2777	—	
'42.....	10	20	30	52	86	151	409	1896	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2654	3	
'43.....	5	20	30	31	53	70	191	428	1893	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2721	4	
'44.....	—	8	20	32	44	48	88	195	398	1872	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2705	4	
'45.....	—	—	16	33	19	35	71	190	193	451	1889	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2797	6	
'46.....	—	—	1	13	21	18	22	37	46	77	163	305	1657	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2547	6	
'47.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2322	21	
'48.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2101	7	
'49.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2436	5	
'50.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2514	5	
'51.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2656	4	
'52.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2392	9	
'53.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2359	2	
'54.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2352	1	
'55.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2129	9	
'56.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2272	10	
'57.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2535	6	
'58.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2132	7	
'59.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2372	5	
'60.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2335	5	
'61.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2758	11	
'62.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2378	28	
'63.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2083	5	
'64.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1996	—	
Numbers omitted from the class of the year.	2920	2938	2914	2953	2763	2675	2755	2759	2719	2708	2644	2364	2367	2339	2470	2555	2511	2377	2492	2309	2225	2420	2468	2252	2263	2250	2337	1913	1760	1433	—	

XV.—*Drawing by Lot in Cantons.*

The census tables of all the communes of the canton having thus been rectified and verified, the drawing by lot is proceeded with. A first drawing takes place, to mark the order in which the communes shall draw. Under article 24 of the law of 21st March, 1832, the Sous-prefet inscribes at the head of the drawing lists the names of the youths, who, by means of frauds or manœuvres, have been omitted from the census tables of preceding years. If they have been convicted as authors or accomplices of such frauds or manœuvres, the first numbers are, under articles 11 and 38, assigned to them by right; and these numbers are consequently withdrawn from the urn, before the regular drawing operations commence. The first numbers are the lowest in the series of those placed in the urn, and those who receive them are the first called out to form part of the contingent; so that those who draw the highest numbers have the best chance of escaping. The rest of the drawing numbers are then, in sight of all, initialed (*parafés*), counted, and thrown into an urn, by the Sous-prefet.

In each commune the youths are called up in the order in which they are inscribed; the Sous-prefet establishes the identity of each, calls on him to draw, receives his number, proclaims it, and causes it to be inscribed on the list. Either the mayor or the relatives draw for an absent person. The grounds of exemption or dispensation which the youths or their relatives propose to bring forward, are noted, in the order of the numbers, on the list, which is made out as the drawing proceeds. The list is read aloud, verified, and signed by the Sous-prefet and the mayors; then published, and posted up in each commune. The drawing operation cannot be recommenced under any pretext, and is on that account surrounded by many precautions.

XVI.—*Proceedings of Councils of Revision.*

In each of the eighty-nine departments of France a Council of Revision exists, by whom all the recruiting operations are reviewed, the drawing by lot verified, appeals heard, and judgment pronounced in public sittings, in regard to exclusions, exemptions, dispensations, exonerations, substitutions, and *remplacements*; regarding all which full details are given further on. These councils make annually a tour or circuit, which generally occupies about a month or six weeks, in order to carry on the operations, as far as possible, in the chief place of each of the 2,938 cantons, under which the 37,510 communes are grouped; but the Prefet can always, when required, unite the

operations of several cantons in one central canton, reporting the same to the authorities.

The council is generally composed of five persons, *i.e.*, the Prefet as president (or in his absence the councillor of prefecture whom he delegates), the councillor of prefecture, a general councillor, a councillor of the arrondissement or district, and a general officer, or one of superior rank. Others assist the Council of Revision, namely, the Sous-prefet, having a right of discussion without voting; a Sous-intendant, having the right of making written observations; a military medical officer, charged with the duty of authenticating the cases of infirmity pleaded by those who have been drawn: making up altogether eight members of the Council. In order to prevent favouritism towards individual conscripts, the Government of France directed, in 1850, that the members of the councils-general and of the arrondissements, should be appointed to sit on the Councils of Revision in localities other than those where they have their fixed residence.

All the youths who, according to the order of their numbers, may be called on to form part of the contingent, are convoked, examined, and heard by the Councils of Revision; if they do not attend the convocation, or do not send representatives, their case is proceeded with as if they were present.

In cases of claims for exemption on account of ill-health, the medical officers are consulted. The other cases of exemption or deduction are judged of upon the production of authenticated documents; and on certificates signed by three fathers of families domiciled in the same canton, whose sons are liable to be called out, or have been called. These certificates must besides be signed and approved, by the mayor of the commune of the applicant.

The Council of Revision also decides upon substitution or exchange of numbers, the demands for *remplacement*, and exoneration from the service.

The decisions of the Council of Revision are definitive, excepting in the two following cases. When the youths, designated by their numbers to form part of the contingent of the canton, have made appeals, the admission or rejection of which depends upon the decision to be passed upon judicial questions relating to their state, or their civil rights. In such cases, the same number of young people are, if necessary, marked out to supply the place of these appellants. They are, however, only called out in cases where, by the effect of judicial decisions, the appellants are definitively liberated. The tribunals then decree, without delay, reserving an appeal to the Minister of War.

The same arrangement is made in the case of youths who have been handed over to the tribunals as accused of having rendered

themselves unfit for service; and when the Council of Revision has granted a delay, not to exceed twenty days, for the production of justificatory papers, or in cases of absence.

After the Council of Revision has decided upon exemptions, deductions, substitutions, *remplacements*, and exonerations, as also on all the appeals to which the recruiting operations give rise, the list of the contingent of each canton is definitively closed, and signed by the Council of Revision; and the names inscribed are proclaimed. The youths who are called in default of others are only inscribed upon the list of the contingent conditionally, and under a reservation of their rights.

The Council afterwards declares that the youths not inscribed upon this list, are definitively liberated. This declaration, with the indication of the last number comprised in the cantonal contingent, is publicly posted up in each canton. As soon as the delays granted in virtue of the arrangements above detailed have expired, or when the tribunals have decided in the cases provided for, the council pronounces in the same manner on the liberation of appellants, or of the youths designated conditionally to supply their places.

In each of the eighty-nine departments of France, a recruiting dépôt is established for the reception of conscripts; commanded by a chef de bataillon or squadron, or by a captain. These dépôts are classed as first or second, according to their importance. The commanding officer of the dépôt follows the movements of the Council of Revision, and in each sitting takes note of the military aptitude of the youths, and for what branch of service they are best fitted.

Thus, the number of officials actually employed on each Council of Revision, for the object of selecting recruits for the army, may be taken at nine in each department, making for the eighty-nine departments of France, a total of 801 officers employed for four to six weeks every year; all officers of rank, and many holding important offices, viz. :—

- 89 Prefets.
- 89 Councillors of Prefecture.
- 89 General Councillors.
- 89 Councillors of Arrondissement.
- 89 General Officers.
- 89 Sous-prefets.
- 89 Sous-intendants.
- 89 Military Medical Officers.
- 89 Commandants of Dépôts.

There are other functionaries, such as the mayors of communes, who are in attendance on the Councils of Revision, and contribute to form the vast and powerful machinery employed to furnish the French army with efficient recruits. The operations are all reported on in full detail to the Minister of War, by whom the proceedings of these Councils of Revision are severely and strictly scrutinised in his annual report to the Emperor.

On the correctness and impartiality of the decisions of these Councils rests the whole scheme of the French conscription. The dates of commencement and termination of their sittings, the number of sittings, those presided over by the Prefet, and the number of cantons in which held; the number of youths liable for service, the numbers examined, rejected, passed exempted, and dispensed from military service; as also the numbers absent or who cannot be supplied, are all reported to the sovereign in the annual report of the Minister of War.

The following table condenses into small space, a great variety of details included in the annual reports of the Minister of War, connected with the proceedings of the Councils.

Return of the Operations

Years of		Operations of the Conseils of Revision.		Days Occu- pied.	Number of Cantons.		Average Number of Days in the Tour of the Conseils in each Department.	Number of Conseils
Exam- ination.	The Class.	Commenced.	Terminated.		In France.	Visited by Conseils of Revision.		Total Number.
1841	1840	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
'42	'41	—	—	—	2,846	2,075	28	2,647
'43	'42	—	—	—	„	2,081	29	2,687
'44	'43	4 May, 1844	20 June, 1844	47	—	2,117	28	2,744
'45	'44	15 „ '45	30 „ '45	46	—	2,134	28	2,778
'46	'45	15 „ '46	30 „ '46	46	2,846	2,232	30	2,809
'47	'46	12 „ '47	30 „ '47	49	„	2,202	34	2,874
'48	'47	15 April, '48	30 April, '48	15	—	—	—	—
'49	'48	22 May, '49	10 July, '49	49	2,847	2,364	30	2,948
'50	'49	15 „ '50 ...	6 „ '50	51	„	2,425	32	2,968
1851	1850	6 May, 1851	25 June, 1851	50	2,847	2,530	32	3,006
'52	'51	13 „ '52	30 „ '52	48	„	2,588	33	3,063
'53	'52	17 „ '53	5 July, '53	49	2,846	2,593	33	3,049
'54	'53	29 April, '54	29 May, '54	31	—	1,784	24	2,942
'55	'54	1 March, '55	20 March, '55	21	2,846	1,426	19	2,836
'56	'55	25 Feb., '56	15 „ '51	18	2,847	1,484	20	3,020
'57	'56	30 April, '57	10 June, '57	42	2,848	2,601	32	3,039
'58	'57	3 May, '58	5 „ '58	32	2,849	2,411	28	3,034
'59	'58	1 „ '59	26 May, '59	27	2,850	2,160	26	2,988
'60	'59	22 „ '60	30 June, '60	39	2,859	2,580	31	3,053
1861	1860	29 April, 1861	8 June, 1861	41	2,934	2,711	31	3,175
'62	'61	22 „ '62	31 May, '62	40	2,936	2,775	31	3,188
'63	'62	20 March, '63	27 April, '63	39	„	2,746	37	3,184
'64	'63	29 „ '64	7 May, '64	40	„	2,757	32	3,213

XVII.—*Exemptions.*

I must now explain more particularly the various causes of exemption from military service, which are decided upon by the Councils of Revision.

of the Conseils of Revision.

Meetings held by of Revision.		Number of Youths forming the Total Strength of the Class.						Average Number Examined at each Sitting.
Presided over by		Inscribed on the Census and Drawing Lists.	Number Called to obtain the Contingent.	Number not Called for Contingent.	Cannot be supplied by Cantons.	Absent.	Strength of Contingent.	
The Prefets.	Conseillers of the Prefecture.							
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	67
2,418	229	300,822	175,541	—	—	2,287	—	74
2,441	246	304,222	180,409	—	—	2,598	80,000	66
2,389	355	304,998	179,327	—	—	2,107	80,000	65
2,220	558	308,900	173,462	—	—	2,074	80,000	61
2,467	342	300,775	172,288	—	—	1,968	80,000	61
2,461	413	307,891	173,910	—	—	2,154	80,000	61
—	—	304,905	160,460	—	—	3,229	80,000	65
2,164	784	305,124	166,994	—	—	2,701	80,000	50
2,005	963	304,023	167,548	—	—	2,585	80,000	48
2,599	407	305,712	164,405	—	—	2,382	80,000	47
2,435	628	311,218	161,077	—	—	2,426	80,000	44
2,526	523	295,762	159,939	—	—	2,427	80,000	46
2,670	272	301,295	255,749	—	—	4,425	140,000	75
2,669	167	306,622	261,121	45,501	2,324	5,103	140,000	77
2,789	231	317,855	268,039	49,816	2,441	4,720	140,000	77
2,794	245	310,289	211,620	98,669	280	2,851	100,000	69
2,595	439	294,761	210,019	84,742	415	2,967	100,000	73
2,797	191	305,339	267,333	38,006	3,102	3,704	140,000	77
2,738	315	306,314	206,168	100,146	215	2,357	100,000	57
2,633	542	312,204	204,216	107,988	171	2,606	100,000	55
2,810	378	321,455	205,093	116,362	126	2,792	100,000	53
2,857	327	323,070	204,047	119,023	133	2,509	100,000	56
2,756	457	325,127	204,870	120,257	186	2,451	100,000	55

The French legislature has provided for exemption from the military service, on various well-defined grounds, enumerated below.

I will first place before you a table I have compiled, showing the aggregate numbers of exemptions, on all these grounds, during a series of years, from 1841 to 1864.

Years.		Number of Youths of the Age of 20, Subject to the Conscription.		Grand Total of Youths Exempted from all Causes.		
In which the Conscription Drawn.	To which the Classes belong from which Drawn.	Total Number of Youths of each Year.	Number of Youths Examined by Councils of Revision.	Number.	Relative Proportion per 100 on	
					Youths of Class.	Youths Examined.
1841.....	1840	300,717	176,778	96,487	32·08	54·58
'42.....	'41	300,822	175,541	95,355	31·69	54·32
'43.....	'42	304,222	180,409	100,253	32·95	55·57
'44.....	'43	304,998	179,327	99,153	32·50	55·29
'45.....	'44	308,900	173,462	93,374	30·22	53·83
'46.....	'45	300,775	172,288	92,083	30·61	53·44
'47.....	'46	307,091	173,910	93,724	30·46	53·89
'48.....	'47	304,905	160,460	80,168	26·26	48·71
'49.....	'48	305,124	166,994	86,739	28·40	51·94
'50.....	'49	304,023	167,548	87,360	28·73	52·14
1851.....	1850	305,712	164,405	84,245	27·56	51·24
'52.....	'51	311,228	161,077	81,011	26·02	50·28
'53.....	'52	295,762	159,939	79,780	26·98	49·89
'54.....	'53	301,295	255,749	117,485	38·98	47·60
'55.....	'54	306,622	261,121	122,972	40·11	47·09
'56.....	'55	317,855	268,039	130,158	40·94	48·56
'57.....	'56	310,289	211,620	111,726	36·01	52·80
'58.....	'57	294,761	210,019	110,113	37·42	54·53
'59.....	'58	305,339	267,333	130,236	42·65	48·72
'60.....	'59	306,314	206,168	106,241	31·42	51·53
1861.....	1860	312,204	204,216	104,255	33·39	51·63
'62.....	'61	321,455	205,093	104,992	32·06	51·19
'63.....	'62	323,070	204,047	103,994	32·18	50·97
'64.....	'63	325,127	204,870	104,827	32·24	51·16
Total*....	—	7,378,610	4,710,413	2,416,731	31·75	51·31

* These totals approximate sufficiently close to the exact numbers to allow of the percentages being struck.

The above table shows that, during the whole period, the numbers examined in order to obtain fit men for the contingent, have generally been more than double the strength required. In 1848 the numbers examined were, however, only just double the strength fixed for the contingent. This was stated to be owing to the republic having formed special commissions to examine the conscripts; and as many as possible were passed into the army, which resulted, as the Minister of War afterwards pointed out, in unfit men being admitted into the service.

It will also be observed, that in the years 1853, 1854, 1855, and 1859, the numbers examined were not equal to double the

strength of the contingent, which in these years was raised to 140,000 men, on account of war. The inference is, that the greater drain on the population the fewer the rejections; indeed it may be said that, if the same stringency that prevails in time of peace had been exercised in examining men in those years of war, the whole class would probably have been brought under examination, without being able to complete the contingent with fit men.

It will also be seen from the above table, that the number of exemptions has invariably exceeded the strength of the contingent, except in the four years when the strength was raised to 140,000, on account of war. The numbers exempted during the latter years are, relatively to the strength of the contingent, somewhat smaller than at the beginning of the period. Great stress is laid on this fact by various writers, as showing an improvement in the quality of the class called out; but, judging from our own experience of recruiting, I should be inclined rather to attribute this result to the diminished stringency of the examination when a large contingent is required; a contingent of 80,000 men would allow of a larger proportion of rejections, than one of 100,000 or 140,000 men.

The number forming the class of the year has, within the period of twenty-four years, increased by about one-twelfth; but much stress must not be laid on this, because, as already shown in the table given above in the subdivision of "Recruiting Resources," there have been previous variations. For instance, in the year 1834 the number of the class (329,236) was higher than in 1864, viz., 325,127. This increase in 1834 was attributed to the cessation of war in France twenty years previously, in consequence of which an unusual number of births took place in 1814. The number of births in subsequent years is shown to be lower than that of the 1834 class, though the number of the 1863 class approximated thereto.

The several causes which give rise to the exemptions, of which the aggregate is given above, are nine in number:—

1st. Those who are found on measurement to be deficient of the standard height.

2nd. Those unfit from bodily weakness, or any other infirmity, for service in the army.

The numbers exempted under these two heads, are shown in the table below.

Years.		Number of Youths out of all who attained the Age of 20, found on Examination Unfit from Two Causes, Deficient Height, and from Infirmities.								
In which Con- scription was Drawn.	To which belongs the Class from which Drawn.	Number Deficient of Height.	Percentage to the Total.		Number found Weak.	Percentage to the Total of		Total Unfit for want of Height and being Weak.	Percentage to the Total of Unfits.	
			Of the Whole Class.	Number Ex- amined.		Whole Class.	Number Ex- amined.		To Whole Class.	To Rate Ex- amined.
1841....	1840	13,865	4·61	7·84	54,066	17·98	30·58	67,931	22·59	38·42
'42....	'41	12,754	4·24	7·27	54,878	18·24	31·26	67,632	22·48	38·53
'43....	'42	13,348	4·39	7·40	58,262	19·15	32·29	71,610	23·54	39·69
'44....	'43	12,672	4·12	7·06	58,622	19·23	32·69	71,294	23·35	39·75
'45....	'44	11,800	3·82	6·80	54,565	17·66	31·46	66,365	21·48	38·26
'46....	'45	11,695	3·89	6·76	53,891	17·93	31·34	65,586	21·82	38·10
'47....	'46	11,203	3·64	6·72	56,013	18·23	32·20	67,216	21·87	38·92
'48....	'47	13,768	4·52	8·58	41,884	13·73	26·10	55,652	18·25	34·68
'49....	'48	11,791	3·86	7·06	49,217	16·13	29·47	61,008	19·99	36·53
'50....	'49	11,172	3·67	6·66	49,775	16·37	29·11	60,947	20·04	35·77
1851....	1850	10,256	3·35	6·23	48,433	15·84	29·46	58,689	19·19	35·69
'52....	'51	9,699	3·12	5·96	46,858	15·05	29·14	56,557	18·17	35·10
'53....	'52	9,889	3·34	6·18	45,944	15·55	28·76	55,833	18·89	34·94
'54....	'53	15,329	4·75	5·60	62,376	21·03	24·78	77,705	25·78	30·38
'55....	'54	17,951	5·85	6·87	62,564	20·40	23·96	80,515	26·25	30·83
'56....	'55	18,466	5·81	6·80	65,417	20·58	24·41	83,883	26·39	31·21
'57....	'56	13,332	4·30	6·30	60,673	19·53	28·67	74,005	23·83	34·97
'58....	'57	13,393	4·54	6·38	58,314	19·85	27·86	71,707	24·39	34·24
'59....	'58	16,491	5·40	6·17	63,829	20·90	23·88	80,320	26·30	30·05
'60....	'59	12,178	3·98	5·86	55,481	18·11	26·92	67,659	22·09	32·78
1861....	1860	12,148	3·89	5·95	54,177	17·35	26·48	66,325	21·24	32·43
'62....	'61	11,710	3·64	5·70	56,524	17·58	27·56	68,234	21·22	33·26
'63....	'62	11,428	3·54	5·60	56,885	17·60	27·88	68,313	21·14	33·48
'64....	'63	11,421	3·51	5·57	57,659	17·73	28·14	69,080	21·24	33·71
Total	—	307,759	4·15	6·53	1,326,307	17·29	21·11	1,634,066	22·13	34·66

The above table shows that in 1841 there were 13,865 youths rejected for insufficient height, out of the class of 1840, in number 300,717; and that the percentage of rejection was 4·61. But as only 177,778 youths were examined, then the 13,865 rejected youths were 7·84 per cent. of the number examined. The youths rejected on account of bodily infirmities in the same year were 54,066, or 17·98 per cent. of the whole class, and 30·58 per cent. of the number examined. These two great causes gave 67,931 rejected out of 300,717, or 22·59 per cent; and as many as 54·58 per cent., or more than one-half of the 176,778 examined. These proportions are not materially altered according to the last year's results.

Great importance is attached by the French authorities to enforcing military service in all possible cases; and the stringency of the inquiry into the causes of exemption has been greatly increased of late years. Since 1831, the Minister of War's annual report

on the recruiting operations recapitulates, under twenty-one heads, the different infirmities that give rise to exemptions; since 1850, a new nomenclature has been adopted, which contains no less than fifty-eight columns, comprised in fifteen great divisions. This part of the question especially deserves attention, and I would gladly set before you the table of diseases and bodily defects, to which the youths of France owe exemption from military service, but the want of space prevents me.

In the numerous statistical works to which these tables have given rise, the percentage of infirmities as above given has been considered as applying to all the youths examined. But a glance at the table of the operations of the Councils of Revision suffices, to show that the heading "Examined" comprises not only those really examined in reference to height and infirmities, but also those exempted on other grounds provided for by the law, such as voluntary enlisters, most of whom only require to produce the necessary legal certificates, and are not examined by the Council, having already been recognised as fit for service, by the recruiting commissions that receive their engagement. Under the head "Examined" are also comprised the youths already legally bound to the service of the land and sea forces, and other classes of persons, who receive dispensations but are retained in the contingent, as fully explained further on. These latter classes are invited to allow themselves to be examined by the council, as the discontinuance of the professional engagements on account of which they obtained dispensation, renders them liable to be called on to serve, and it is the interest of the administration only to retain in the contingent persons fit for service; but it is not known how many respond to this invitation.

Finally, the head "Examined" comprises also the absent persons, who, although they have neither allowed themselves to be examined, nor sent representatives, are, nevertheless, considered as present, in virtue of article 16 of the law. These cannot have been subjected to the examination of the Council; and if examined later, it is before a special commission formed for that purpose.

In point of fact, neither those absent, a certain number of those exempted, nor those who, although forming part of the contingent, are dispensed from active service, can be considered as having been really examined by the Councils of Revision. The percentage of exemptions on account of insufficient height and ill-health, as shown in the above table, is, therefore, not high enough; and in order to ascertain that it would be necessary to shew, not the whole number who figured under the head of "Examined," but those actually subjected to the examination of the councils. Unfortunately, the form of the official statements does not allow of this number being ascertained even approximately.

Exemptions are allowed under the four following heads, on grounds of State policy, as well as with a view to conciliate the people of France. Those youths who are supporters of their families being struck out of the class of the year, as not liable to be drawn for the contingent. These four heads are as below :—

3rd. The eldest of a family of orphans who have lost both father and mother.

4th. The only son, or the eldest son, or, in default of son and son-in-law, the only grandson or eldest grandson of a widow woman.

5th. Son or grandson of a septuagenarian, or blind man.

6th. Youngest of brothers, blind or impotent.

In these two last cases exemption applies to the younger brother, if the elder be blind, or afflicted with any other incurable infirmity that renders him helpless.

The table below gives the exemptions under these four heads.

Years.		1	2	3	4	5	6
		As Eldest of Orphans.			As Son or Grandson of a Widow.		
In which Contingent Drawn.	To which Class Belongs.	Number.	Percentage to the whole of the Class of the Year.	Percentage to the Number of the Class Examined.	Number.	Percentage to the whole of the Class of the Year.	Percentage to the Number of the Class Examined.
1841.....	1840	2,168	0·72	1·23	12,269	4·08	6·94
'42.....	'41	2,069	0·69	1·17	11,650	3·87	6·64
'43.....	'42	2,053	0·68	1·14	11,998	3·94	6·65
'44.....	'43	2,023	0·66	1·12	11,662	3·82	6·50
'45.....	'44	2,000	0·65	1·15	11,373	3·68	6·56
'46.....	'45	1,811	0·60	1·05	10,919	3·64	6·33
'47.....	'46	1,804	0·58	1·03	11,144	3·62	6·40
'48.....	'47	1,784	0·58	1·11	10,247	3·36	6·38
'49.....	'48	1,897	0·62	1·13	10,952	3·58	6·56
'50.....	'49	2,020	0·66	1·20	11,334	3·72	6·76
1851.....	1850	1,928	0·63	1·21	10,802	3·54	6·57
'52.....	'51	1,803	0·58	1·12	10,678	3·43	6·63
'53.....	'52	1,619	0·55	1·01	10,324	3·49	6·45
'54.....	'53	2,717	0·90	1·62	16,648	5·53	6·51
'55.....	'54	2,731	0·89	1·05	17,198	5·61	6·59
'56.....	'55	2,782	0·88	1·04	17,881	5·63	6·67
'57.....	'56	2,148	0·69	1·02	14,035	4·52	6·63
'58.....	'57	2,236	0·76	1·06	14,085	4·73	6·71
'59.....	'58	2,794	0·91	1·05	17,951	5·88	6·71
'60.....	'59	2,317	0·76	1·12	14,071	4·59	6·82
1861.....	1860	2,186	0·70	1·07	13,952	4·47	6·83
'62.....	'61	2,127	0·66	1·04	13,365	4·16	6·52
'63.....	'62	2,070	0·64	1·01	13,198	4·09	6·49
'64.....	'63	2,061	0·63	1·00	13,381	4·11	6·53
Total from 1841 } to 1864..... }		51,148	0·69	1·08	311,117	4·27	6·60

The severity of the conscription has gradually been softened, and of late years still further lessened to the families of France, by the Government according exemption, on the ground of relationship to men actually enrolled in the army. These claims give rise to exemptions under the three following heads:—

7th. The elder of two brothers comprised in the same drawing list, and both drawn by lot, provided the younger is considered fit for service.

8th. The brothers of a soldier serving under the colours, in any other capacity than as a *remplaçant*.

9th. The brothers of a soldier who has died in active service, or been invalided, or admitted to pension on account of wounds received in authorised service, or sickness contracted in the land or sea forces.

7 8 9			10 11 12			13	Years.	
Son or Grandson of a Septuagenarian or Blind Man.			As Youngest of Brothers Blind or Impotent.			Grand Total.		
Number.	Percentage to the whole of the Class of the Year.	Percentage to the Number of the Class Examined.	Number.	Percentage to the whole of the Class of the Year.	Percentage to the Number of the Class Examined.	Number.	To which Class Belongs.	In which Contingent Drawn.
972	0·32	0·55	91	0·03	0·05	15,500	1840	1841
933	0·31	0·53	66	0·02	0·04	14,748	'41	'42
923	0·30	0·51	89	0·03	0·05	15,063	'42	'43
913	0·29	0·50	59	0·01	0·03	14,657	'43	'44
823	0·27	0·47	64	0·02	0·04	14,260	'44	'45
858	0·28	0·49	78	0·02	0·04	13,666	'45	'46
868	0·28	0·48	61	0·01	0·02	13,877	'46	'47
757	0·24	0·47	62	0·02	0·03	12,850	'47	'48
786	0·25	0·47	84	0·03	0·05	13,719	'48	'49
813	0·26	0·48	50	0·01	0·02	14,217	'49	'50
817	0·27	0·49	60	0·02	0·03	13,607	1850	1851
677	0·22	0·42	40	0·01	0·03	13,798	'51	'52
671	0·23	0·42	45	0·01	0·03	12,659	'52	'53
1,175	0·39	1·46	88	0·03	0·03	20,628	'53	'54
1,087	0·35	0·41	94	0·03	0·04	27,770	'54	'55
1,039	0·32	0·39	91	0·03	0·03	27,793	'55	'56
828	0·27	0·39	64	0·02	0·03	17,075	'56	'57
766	0·26	0·36	70	0·03	0·03	17,157	'57	'58
1,011	0·33	0·38	71	0·02	0·03	21,827	'58	'59
729	0·24	0·35	62	0·02	0·03	17,179	'59	'60
747	0·21	0·37	73	0·02	0·04	16,958	1860	1861
701	0·22	0·34	51	0·02	0·03	16,244	'61	'62
753	0·23	0·37	47	0·01	0·02	16,068	'62	'63
739	0·22	0·36	64	0·01	0·03	16,245	'63	'64
20,386	0·27	0·43	1,624	0·02	0·03	384,275	{ Total from 1841 to 1864	

The law of the 4th June, 1864, has also widened the claims of the relatives of a soldier to exemption. Up to that time, re-engagement after the first period of service, gave no right of exemption to the relatives of a soldier as during his first engagement. That law, however, allowed dispensation to be claimed; the effect of which will be explained under that head.

The following table shows how extensively these claims for exemption occupy the attention of the Councils of Revision.

Years.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		Eldest of Two Brothers called to take part in the same Drawing, and Fixed by Lot.			Brothers of Soldiers under the Colours, except as Remplaçants.			Brothers of Soldiers, Died on Active Service, or Invalided, or Pensioned for Wounds.			Grand Total.
In which the Contingent is Drawn.	To which Class Belongs	Number.	Percentage to whole Class of the Year.	Percentage to the Number of Class Examined.	Number.	Percentage to whole Class of the Year.	Percentage to the Number of Class Examined.	Number.	Percentage to whole Class of the Year.	Percentage to the Number of Class Examined.	Number.
1841	1840	65	0'02	0'04	11,010	3'66	6'23	1,981	0'66	1'12	13,056
'42	'41	45	0'01	0'03	10,731	3'57	6'11	2,229	0'74	1'27	13,005
'43	'42	58	0'02	0'03	10,966	3'60	6'08	2,556	0'84	1'42	13,580
'44	'43	49	0'01	0'02	10,861	3'56	6'05	2,292	0'75	1'27	13,202
'45	'44	46	0'01	0'03	10,390	3'36	5'99	2,313	0'75	1'33	12,749
'46	'45	55	0'01	0'01	10,594	3'52	6'14	2,182	0'72	1'26	12,837
'47	'46	47	0'01	0'01	10,507	3'42	6'04	2,077	0'67	1'18	12,637
'48	'47	44	0'01	0'02	9,848	3'23	6'14	1,774	0'59	1'11	11,666
'49	'48	62	0'02	0'04	9,983	3'27	5'98	1,967	0'64	1'18	12,012
'50	'49	56	0'01	0'04	9,976	3'28	5'95	2,164	0'71	1'29	12,196
1851	1850	78	0'03	0'04	9,867	3'22	6'00	2,004	0'66	1'21	11,949
'52	'51	44	0'01	0'03	9,527	3'06	5'91	1,685	0'54	1'41	11,256
'53	'52	63	0'02	0'03	9,707	3'28	6'07	1,518	0'51	0'94	11,288
'54	'53	127	0'04	0'05	16,806	5'58	6'58	2,219	0'73	0'97	19,152
'55	'54	144	0'05	0'05	18,489	6'03	7'98	2,714	0'89	1'04	21,347
'56	'55	145	0'05	0'05	19,475	6'13	7'26	4,862	1'53	1'81	24,482
'57	'56	72	0'02	0'03	15,622	5'03	7'38	4,952	1'60	2'34	20,646
'58	'57	56	0'02	0'03	16,816	5'70	8'04	4,377	1'49	2'08	21,249
'59	'58	124	0'04	0'05	23,085	7'56	8'64	4,880	1'60	1'83	28,089
'60	'59	67	0'02	0'03	17,520	5'72	8'50	3,816	1'25	1'85	21,403
1861	1860	82	0'03	0'04	17,388	5'57	8'51	3,502	1'12	1'71	20,972
'62	'61	97	0'03	0'05	17,310	5'38	8'44	3,107	0'97	1'51	20,514
'63	'62	84	0'03	0'04	16,788	5'20	8'23	2,741	0'81	1'34	19,673
'64	'63	85	0'02	0'04	16,771	5'15	8'18	2,646	0'81	1'29	19,502
Total from } 1841 to 1864 }		1,795	0'02	0'03	330,037	4'47	7'00	66,558	0'90	7'47	398,390

XVIII.—*Dispensations.*

The difference between exemptions and dispensations is considerable. Dispensations are accorded with a view to favour certain careers. Exemption is claimed before the final formation of the contingent: and as all exemptions cause the youths with the next higher numbers to be brought forward and included in the contingent, if fit, its strength is therefore not diminished by exemptions. Dispensations, on the other hand, are granted after the contingent is formed, thereby reducing its effective strength; although those dispensed are retained on its nominal strength. It is, therefore, the policy of Government to cause as many as possible of the youths of the class to be brought for examination before the Councils of Revision, who would grant exemptions rather than dispensations where possible. For instance, a youth having two claims to be freed from military service, that of having a blind father and having gained the great prize at the University, would, if appearing before the Council, obtain exemption and not dispensation; and being freed on the former ground, the youth with the number following would then take the place of the exempted.

Under the terms of article 14 of the law of 1832, such of the youths drawn for the contingent as are in the following positions, are dispensed from military service; that is, considered as having satisfied the call, and are deducted from the contingent to be formed:—

1st. Those already legally bound to the service of the armies of land or sea, by virtue of voluntary enlistment, of a brevet or commission; on condition of producing a certificate of presence under the colours, and being in all cases bound to complete the term prescribed by the law.

2nd. Young sailors borne upon the registry of the Maritime Inscription, and special artificers also enrolled for the marine service (law 5th Brumaire, An IV).

3rd. The pupils of the Polytechnic School, provided they pass seven years, the term fixed for military service, either in this school or in one of the public services.

4th. Those who devote themselves for ten years to public instruction.

5th. The pupils of the great seminaries, and the youths who

devote themselves to the ministry in the forms of religion recognised by the State.

6th. The youths who carry off the great prizes of the Institut (prix de Bonne), or of the University (prix d'Honneur).

In the event of any person who has received a dispensation giving up the career which has obtained for him such dispensation, he must declare the fact to the mayor of his commune in the same year that it takes place, take a copy of his declaration, and submit it for the *visa* of the Prefet, within a month. He is then replaced in the contingent to which he belongs, and follows the chance of his drawing number, unless he be a member of the University, in which case the whole seven years' service is remitted. Any person who, having received a dispensation, neglects to comply with these conditions, is handed over to the tribunals. During the seven years which the Government can claim for military service, the party dispensed is kept in view, and all changes in condition duly noticed.

Besides the above grounds for dispensation from service in the forces, another was added by the law of 4th June, 1864. The right of exemption for relatives, on the ground of having a brother in the service, was, by the law of 1832, withheld from soldiers re-engaging for service. This rule continues in force; but the law of 1864 modifies it, by allowing a dispensation to the brother so long as the re-engaged soldier remains under the colours, which has the effect of inducing old soldiers to continue in the service.

The following table exhibits for a series of years the heavy reductions in strength to which the contingent has been subjected, on the claims for dispensation being admitted; and shows in two ways the dispensations accorded in the year in which first allowed, and those existing at the end of six years. The dispensations have generally increased in number, as the strength of the contingent has been augmented; but in the years 1854, 1855, and 1856, when war was going on, the number was greater in proportion than the augmentation of the contingent. The exemptions, on the other hand, were fewer, owing to the strictness of the medical examination being somewhat relaxed, for fear of the contingent not being completed. It is within the power of Government to prevent exemptions becoming too numerous; whereas dispensation is claimed by individuals as a right.

*Return of Men who have been Deducted Nominally from the Contingent by
Virtue of Article 14 of the Law.*

Year.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		Nominally Deducted on the Ground of							Deducted from the Contingent as Entitled to Dispensation from Service, in the Year in which Drawn.
To which the Class belongs.	In which Contingent was Drawn.	Having Voluntarily Engaged, or belong to the Service by Virtue of a Brevet or Commission.	Being on the Maritime Inscription.	Students of the Polytechnic.	Members of Public Instruction.	Ecclesiastical Students.	Gainers of the Great Prize of the University or Institute.	Total Number Nominally Deducted.	
1836	1837	2,047	1,539	47	447	554	2	4,636	—
'37	'38	2,471	1,578	58	502	553	2	5,164	—
'38	'39	2,950	1,563	73	517	580	4	5,687	—
'39	'40	3,455	1,619	58	620	595	3	6,350	—
1840	1841	3,639	1,741	54	607	655	2	6,748	6,625
'41	'42	4,108	1,831	78	624	770	1	7,412	7,318
'42	'43	4,584	1,888	60	662	718	9	7,921	7,953
'43	'44	3,626	1,934	83	650	743	2	7,038	7,110
'44	'45	3,964	1,776	60	652	765	3	7,240	7,275
'45	'46	4,252	1,987	50	708	761	1	7,759	7,739
'46	'47	5,332	1,960	49	701	807	2	8,851	8,711
'47	'48	5,527	1,819	37	669	684	1	8,737	8,329
'48	'49	7,023	1,930	69	708	647	—	10,377	10,439
'49	'50	4,802	1,757	36	688	673	3	7,959	8,310
1850	1851	3,977	1,819	32	721	667	3	7,219	7,445
'51	'52	4,452	1,791	34	710	688	—	7,675	7,704
'52	'53	4,382	1,882	35	755	670	1	7,725	7,788
'53	'54	10,634	3,225	49	1,365	1,054	3	16,330	16,219
'54	'55	16,848	3,435	61	1,339	1,044	1	22,728	22,351
'55	'56	14,815	3,732	72	1,435	1,091	1	21,146	20,895
'56	'57	6,117	2,772	49	1,112	784	1	10,835	10,962
'57	'58	6,283	2,827	47	1,128	871	2	11,158	11,089
'58	'59	9,067	3,734	64	1,386	1,207	2	15,460	15,256
'59	'60	7,713	2,797	56	1,085	934	—	12,585	12,667
1860	1861	7,272	2,635	74	1,108	991	2	12,082	12,159
'61	'62	6,484	2,406	54	1,132	1,011	3	11,090	11,029
'62	'63	3,950	2,410	59	1,163	1,035	1	8,618	8,649
'63	'64	6,357	2,385	57	1,198	1,075	4	11,076	10,739
Total from } 1841 to 1864 }		155,208	56,473	1,319	22,306	20,345	48	255,769	254,791

In order to account for the difference between the numbers entered in cols. 7 and 8, it must be explained, that the result shown in the former, is drawn from the reports completed to the end of six years after the men were drawn for the conscription, whereas col. 8 is filled in with the numbers dispensed at the time at which the men were drawn.

XIX.—*Exoneration.*

Whilst on one hand the State excludes, exempts, or dispenses from military service, all those who can substantiate their claims to exemption, under the law of the conscription, a man drawn for service can, also, on his part, free himself from the obligation, either by exoneration, by substitution, or by *remplacement* between relatives.

Exoneration forms an entirely new principle, established under the law of the 26th April, 1855. The youths drawn for the annual contingent obtain exoneration from the service, by means of ready money payments to the Caisse de Dotation of the army; men to supply their places being provided by Government. This fund is managed by the caisse de dépôts and de consignations, under the surveillance of a superior Commission, composed of fifteen members, whose functions are honorary; and the payments are applied to replacing those exonerated, by means of the re-engagement of old soldiers, or by replacements made under the direct authority of the administration.

In thus partially substituting exoneration for replacement, the law constituted exoneration the right of families, and made it an obligation on the part of the State, towards families, to exonerate youths in consideration of the payment of a fixed sum. The Minister of War decrees every year, upon the advice of this Commission, the amount to be paid for exoneration. It varies from year to year; is higher in time of war than in peace, and depends both on the demand and the supply. Every person drawn as a conscript who wishes to be exonerated, declares it before the Council of Revision; and the money must be paid in within ten days following the closing of the operations of this council. At the expiration of this period, the Council of Revision meets for the last time in the chief place of the department, and pronounces exoneration on presentation of receipts for payment. A soldier already under the colours may also obtain exoneration, if the authorities consent: he then pays in a sum proportioned to the length of service remaining to be performed, and the exoneration is pronounced by the Council of Administration. In both cases the person exonerated receives a certificate of exoneration.

The following table will show the extent to which conscripts have, since the passing of the law of 1855, availed themselves of the power of purchasing exoneration, and the rates paid. I have also inserted the maximum, minimum, and average percentage of men of the contingent in the different departments of France, who purchased exoneration. It will be seen that the ratios vary considerably, and

if space permitted, a detailed table in connection therewith would much assist in throwing light on the habits of people of different parts of the country.

Date of Ministerial Decree Fixing the Rates of Exoneration.	Sum Fixed to Obtain Exoneration.	Class of the Year to which the Sum is applicable.	In what Year to be Paid.	Strength of the Contingent of the Year.	Number of Exonerations Pronounced by the Councils of Revision.	Proportion that the Exonerations bear to the Contingent in Different Departments.		
						Max-imum.	Mini-imum.	Average.
	fr.					Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
21 Dec., 1855....	2,800	1855	1856	140,000	22,427	31	2	16.
6 Jan., '57....	2,000	'56	'57	100,000	15,757	35	0.46	16.
3 Feb., '58....	1,800	'57	'58	100,000	17,974	34	3	18.
15 „ '59....	2,000	'58	'59	140,000	38,325	48	4	27.37
1 May, '60....	2,300	'59	'60	100,000	23,275	45	2	22.76
8 April, '61....	2,500	'60	'61	100,000	19,863	41	3	19.86
4 „ '62....	2,500	'61	'62	100,000	18,381	35	1	18.38
28 Feb., '63....	2,300	'62	'63	100,000	20,247	41	2	20.24
9 March, '64....	2,300	'63	'64	100,000	20,566	40	2	20.56
22 „ '65....	2,300	'64	'65	100,000	18,777	36	2	18.77
Total of con- scripts ex- onerated }	—	—	—	—	215,592	—	—	—

The effect of war in inducing the purchase of exoneration from military service, is shown in the above Table, from which it will be seen, that nearly one-third of the conscripts purchased exoneration in 1859, a year of war. In time of peace the purchases fall off. An inquiry in 1865, instituted by the Minister of War, also brought to light the fact, that exoneration was obtained more largely by the men composing the first part of the contingent, than by those of the second portion; these being willing to run the risk of being called on to join the army, rather than pay the large sum fixed as the price of their freedom from military service. The numbers of the second portion of the contingent who purchased their discharge in 1860, exceeded those in 1865 by 5,465. The cause of this diminution was the hope entertained by families, that the second portion of the 1859 contingent would be freed in 1866, without having been called under the colours. In fact, that peace would be maintained.

The following table will show the extent to which all the soldiers of the army have availed themselves, of the opening to obtain exoneration, during the time the law has been in force.

Dates of Decrees Fixing Rates of Exoneration.	Rates for each Year or Fraction of a Year's Service to be Com- pleted.	Number of Soldiers who Purchased Exoneration for different periods.										The Number Exone- rated Cal- culated at 7 Years are equal to
		Impe- rial Guard.	Infantry, including Schools and Adminis- trative Services.	Cavalry.	Artil- lery.	Engi- neers.	Mili- tary Equi- pages.	Gen- dar- merie.	Marine Forces.	Soldiers of the Reserve.	Total in every year.	
	fr.											
28 Dec., 1855	5 ⁰⁰	110	1,716	831	287	82	91	2	149	—	3,268	2,101
18 June, '56	3 ⁵⁰											
6 Jan., '57	3 ⁵⁰	256	3,029	1,133	624	98	131	10	243	—	5,524	3,887
3 Feb., '58	3 ⁵⁰	229	3,136	801	325	77	57	12	398	—	5,035	—
15 Feb., '59	4 ⁰⁰	152	3,971	1,025	443	132	101	8	597	—	6,429	3,892
1 May, '60	5 ⁰⁰	283	3,701	670	809	198	94	18	296	—	6,068	2,720
8 April, '61	5 ⁵⁰	79	1,140	396	153	34	26	8	151	91	2,078	1,075
4 April, '62	5 ⁵⁰	42	759	339	107	17	9	10	156	86	1,525	—
28 Feb., '63	5 ⁰⁰	37	782	279	104	21	26	9	265	205	1,728	1,010
9 March, '64	5 ⁰⁰	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,996	1,049
22 March, '65	5 ⁰⁰	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,619	883
Total number of soldiers who purchased exoneration	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	35,270	—

It should be observed that exoneration is purchased by soldiers for different periods of their service, varying from seven years down to a fraction of a year, which is reckoned as one year; and the last column of the table shows how many complete periods of seven years' service, the total number of exoneration purchased are equal to. Supposing seven soldiers, each of three years' service, purchase their discharge, the number are entered as three soldiers each of seven years.

The law requires that an exact account be kept of the numbers annually exonerated, as also of those who take their places. This account is annually laid before the Emperor, and furnishes much useful information connected with the army. By the latest report the numbers admitted into the army in lieu of those who purchased exoneration are in excess of such exoneration.

XX.—*Substitution.*

Substitution, or exchange of numbers, as it formerly existed in France, is described as an arrangement by which a youth drawn by the conscription could pass from the first portion of the contingent to the second portion, which generally remained at home during the seven years' service that it owes to the State. Under the law of the 21st March, 1832, this exchange of numbers was allowed to take place—first, between all the youths of the same canton, but only up to the closing of the list of the contingent to

be supplied by this canton; secondly, after the closing of the cantonal contingent, between all the youths inscribed on this list, but only up to the date of the order of march of the registered young soldier. A subsequent law of 17th March, 1858, limited the exchange to "brothers, brothers-in-law, and kindred up to the sixth degree, associated in the drawing of the same class, and in the same canton." The present act of substitution is received by the Prefet in the Council of Revision. A substitute present with his corps, or dying in the service, exempts his brother from service, which is not the case with a *remplaçant*. Substitution is, however, permitted only if the substitute is passed by the Council of Revision as fit for the service, as respects height and bodily health. There is this difference between a substitute and a *remplaçant*, that substitution does not entail any responsibility on the person exchanging, in case of the desertion of the one who takes his place in the army; as was the case under the system of individual replacement. The number of substitutions was always very limited, and the law of 1858 has very much diminished them. The numbers are shown in the table given under the next subdivision.

XXI.—*Remplacement*.

In most countries of which the military organisation is based on forced recruiting, the citizens drawn for service have the power of getting others to take their places, either in virtue of a private contract, or by the intervention of the State.

This practice had to a certain extent obtained in France up to the time of the Convention (1793); when all France was put under arms, no exoneration or *remplacement* being admitted. The law of 19th Fructidor, An VI, made no mention of *remplacement*. It was authorised two years subsequently, in two cases only; when the health of the conscript rendered it necessary, and when the continuation of his studies offered more chances of real utility than the military service he was called on to render. A law, passed in the year XI, permitted youths drawn by lot to get their places supplied by conscripts of the same class or of classes already called, not drawn by lot, or drawn for the reserve; the person whose place is supplied, then placing himself in the position of his substitute.

The power of replacement was enlarged and sanctioned successively by laws of the years XIII, 1818, and 1832. The great extent to which this exchange, on the part of men drawn as conscripts was carried, will be illustrated by the following table, which shows that a large proportion of the soldiers of France formerly consisted of men who enter the service for bounty money:—

Return of the Remplaçants Serving in the Army on 1st January of each Year, showing how Admitted.

On the 1st January of the Years	Admitted by the Conseils of Revision.			Admitted by the Corps.			Admitted by the Special Commissions for Administrative Remplacements.			Total Remplacements.		
	Men who had already Served.	Men who had not Served.	Total.	Men who had already Served.	Men who had not Served.	Total.	Men who had already Served.	Men who had not Served.	Total.	Men who had already Served.	Men who had not Served.	Total.
1843....	19,079	49,588	68,667	12,026	5,179	17,205	—	—	—	31,105	54,767	85,872
'44....	17,393	43,477	60,870	10,266	4,809	15,075	—	—	—	27,659	48,286	75,945
'45....	20,692	40,052	60,744	9,326	4,277	13,603	—	—	—	30,018	44,329	74,347
'46....	21,698	46,634	68,332	9,692	4,735	14,427	—	—	—	31,390	51,369	82,759
'47....	24,066	44,459	70,525	10,880	4,326	15,206	—	—	—	34,946	50,785	85,731
'48....	24,426	49,909	74,435	10,920	4,091	15,011	—	—	—	35,346	54,000	89,346
'49....	28,968	59,785	88,753	11,643	4,664	16,307	—	—	—	40,611	64,449	105,060
1850....	28,442	54,981	83,423	12,092	5,123	17,215	—	—	—	40,534	60,104	100,638
'51....	26,681	49,838	76,519	11,498	4,657	16,155	—	—	—	38,179	54,495	92,874
'52....	27,741	48,672	76,413	12,583	4,406	17,049	—	—	—	40,324	53,138	93,462
'53....	26,605	44,285	70,890	11,704	5,036	16,740	—	—	—	38,309	49,321	87,630
'54....	25,677	41,128	66,805	12,878	3,970	16,848	—	—	—	38,555	45,098	83,653
'55....	38,951	60,384	99,335	14,683	5,688	20,371	—	—	—	53,634	66,072	119,706
'56....	34,473	57,019	91,492	17,580	9,092	26,672	—	—	—	52,083	66,111	118,164
'57....	24,329	44,180	68,509	12,190	6,611	18,801	—	—	—	36,519	50,791	87,310
'58....	14,870	19,811	34,690	7,642	3,522	11,164	—	—	—	22,521	23,333	45,854
'59....	10,518	15,510	26,028	5,960	2,949	8,909	—	—	—	16,478	18,459	34,937
1860....	12,338	17,019	29,357	5,900	3,888	9,788	1,624	5,895	7,519	19,862	26,802	46,664
'61....	4,797	6,725	11,522	2,762	1,835	4,597	3,059	13,084	16,143	10,618	21,644	32,262
'62....	1,527	1,818	3,345	829	562	1,391	21,566	4,864	26,430	23,922	7,244 *	31,166
'63....	823	1,179	2,002	372	305	677	5,357	28,469	33,826	6,552	29,953	36,506
'64....	327	1,210	1,537	297	273	570	5,505	34,012	39,517	6,129	35,495	41,624
'65....	312	971	1,283	209	204	413	5,360	40,416	45,776	5,881	41,591	47,472

* The total under 1844 is 75,845 in the Service Return, and for 1862 it is 31,168.

The law of 1832, only part of which is now in force, organised a multiform system of guarantees in regard to the *remplaçant*. Every precaution was taken to prevent the admission of unfit men into the army under this designation. The conditions laid down were stringent as to the character and physical fitness of the men offering to serve. The associations formed as agencies to obtain for private families the means of freeing their sons from the conscription, were all licensed by Government, and kept strictly under the control of the authorities; but all without avail. Men of such a description were passed into the army, that the corps in which they served forced them to desert. They were as a class despised, being disliked by officers and men, and known in the service as the "sold." Families were also exposed to serious pecuniary losses and trouble, from having to provide *remplaçants* in room of their sons drawn as

conscripts, and to continue responsible for these men for some time after they entered the service. Thus, they were often obliged to pay several *remplaçants* successively, consequent on desertion, fraud, incapacity, and mistaken identity. Companies existed for the purpose of providing families with *remplaçants*; but their operations were far from working satisfactorily. As a whole, the system was continually denounced in the legislative bodies, and in works on the army; and various changes were frequently urged.

In order to remedy all these evils the law of the 26th April, 1855, was passed by the legislature.

This law substituted for the general power of replacement, permitted by the laws of 1818 and 1832, exoneration from service. It authorised the State to exonerate men drawn as conscripts, and soldiers under the colours, on payment of certain amounts, fixed by the State from time to time, and established the system of administrative *remplacement*, that is, of Government providing men to replace those who purchased exoneration, to fill up the vacancies thus caused. These monies were required to be paid into the Army Dotation Fund, to be employed for the purpose of inducing men to enter the service, and soldiers still under the colours, or those who had left the army, to prolong their service, or re-engage. The law authorised the payment by Government of bounties and allowances out of the fund, to these men, both whilst in the service, and on discharge. It also restrained the replacements within same limits as substitution, restricting *remplacement*, by private agreement, to brothers, brothers-in-law, and relatives, up to the fourth degree. The table below details the number of *remplaçants* admitted into the army, in each year from 1843. It shows that in time of war, or apprehension of war, as in 1848 and 1854, the men of France desire to be freed from service in the field. In these two years the *remplaçants* largely increased in numbers: but the number of old soldiers who usually gave their services in lieu of conscripts for money, fell off. The last year of the existence of the system of individual replacement was 1855, when the *remplaçants* numbered 16,173. The number of *remplaçants* admitted by the councils of revision in 1856, was only 404, against 16,173 in 1855; and Government did not introduce any of this class. The substitutes, on the other hand, who, in 1855, were only 718, numbered 1,286 in 1856. This was attributed to the intrigues of the old agencies of replacement, which succeeded, in order to compensate for the restriction of *remplaçants*, in increasing the number of substitutions.

In 1857 the number of *remplaçants* admitted by the Councils of Revision was only 254; but the number of substitutes was 2,544, in consequence of the intrigues of the agencies of replacement.

The number of *remplaçants* admitted by the Councils of Revision

in 1858 was 487, against 254 in the previous year; an augmentation which is attributable to an extension of the power of *remplacement* to relations in the fifth and sixth degrees, under the law of 17th March, 1858. But the number of substitutes was brought down to 44; the above law, restricting substitution within the same limits as *remplacements*, having had the effect of putting an end to the abuses that had prevailed.

In 1859 the number of *remplaçants* admitted by the councils of revision was 598; and the number of substitutes continued to diminish, under the influence of the law of 17th March, 1858, being only 11 in 1859.

Since 1859, the number of *remplaçants* and substitutes admitted by the Councils of Revision, have both been small, as will be seen by the following table:—

Return of the Number of Substitutes and Remplacements Admitted by the Conseils of Revision during each Year as below, under Articles 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, and 24, of the Law of 21st March, 1832, and under the Laws of 26th April, 1855, and 17th March, 1858.

Years.	Remplacements.	Substitutes.	Total.	Number of Remplaçants who had Previously Served.
1843	16,333	1,506	17,839	5,974
'44	15,389	1,350	16,739	5,265
'45	16,244	1,448	17,692	5,075
'46	—	—	—	—
'47	17,801	1,859	19,660	5,097
'48	20,446	800	21,246	3,708
'49	15,674	1,376	17,050	1,0438
1850	14,667	1,264	15,931	9,811
'51	15,034	1,449	16,483	4,913
'52	15,086	1,597	16,683	5,080
'53	15,647	1,515	17,162	5,582
'54	20,693	921	21,614	5,835
'55	16,173	718	1,689	2,689
'56	404	1,286	1,690	—
'57	254	2,544	2,798	—
'58	487	45	531	—
'59	598	11	609	—
1860	416	38	454	—
'61	354	31	385	—
'62	330	14	344	—
'63	423	36	459	—
'64	328	43	371	—

In 1859, the breaking out of the war with Italy having caused the contingent to be raised to 140,000 men, no less than 38,325, conscripts obtained exoneration by paying to the Army Dotation Fund, the sum fixed by the Government to secure exemption from

military service. The secession of so large a number of conscripts, out of all proportion to preceding years, combined with the insufficient number of soldiers re-engaging and of voluntary enlisters, induced the Government of France to have recourse to the means of recruiting authorised by article 15 of the law of the 26th April, 1855, by establishing the system of *remplacements* under the direct management of the administration. Agreeably to the advice of the superior Commission of the Army Dotation Fund, a decree of the 3rd May, 1859, authorised the admission of administrative *remplaçants* for periods of service from three to seven years.

Individual *remplacement* was thus almost entirely superseded by administrative *remplacement*. Whenever the number of re-engagements and voluntary engagements is found to be inferior to that of exonerations, the minister of war authorises administrative replacements, and fixes the price to be paid for them.

The Minister of War also decrees the number of *remplaçants* to be furnished by each department, and the commission of invalid leave, (the *Congé de Réforme*) examines the men who propose themselves, and has them inscribed at the mayor's office. Every man accepted receives a copy of the act of *remplacement* prepared by the sous-intendant, and a part of the price fixed for the *remplacement*; the rest is given to him at the expiration of his engagement.

XXII.—*Army Dotation Fund; or, Caisse de Dotation.*

The law of 26th April, 1855, which created an Army Dotation Fund, under the control and superintendence of the State, and brought about a most important change in the French military system, and is reported by some to work satisfactorily, but by other authorities viewed in an unfavourable light.

Under the new system, from the moment exoneration is pronounced, the responsibility of families ceases. The liberation of the conscript is immediate, and definitive; and, on the other hand, the condition of soldiers who re-engage to supply the places of exonerated men, is greatly ameliorated, by their being treated as old soldiers. They are kept in the army, because their former military service has been good, and on re-engaging they receive from the State fixed portions of the bounty-money allowed for re-engaging, additional pay whilst serving, and finally, on discharge, further bounties, and even pensions. They are secured from the losses they might have sustained, had they been allowed to enter into private arrangements for serving as *remplaçants*; and, at the same time, the State is benefited by keeping in the service, or bringing back under the colours, a great number of old soldiers, in the prime of life, attached to the service, well-disciplined, instructed, seasoned.

The rates to be paid by families to the State for the

exoneration of conscripts, as also the bounties to be paid by the State to men engaging as administrative *remplaçants*, and to soldiers re-engaging or re-enlisting, vary year by year; being fixed by decree of the minister of war, on the recommendation of the superior commission appointed to preside over, and report annually on the operations of the Army Dotation Fund. The amounts to be contributed by soldiers under the colours to obtain discharge, vary according to the length of service to be completed.

The rates for exoneration have been frequently altered, being increased or diminished according to the necessities of the State. The amount to be paid by a conscript in the time of the war in the Crimea, was fixed (in 1855) at 2,800 frs., which continued in force during 1856. This was the first rate under the law of 1855, and was reported to be considerably below the amount paid by families when they obtained their own *remplaçants*. It was lowered in 1857 to 2,000 frs., and in 1858 further to 1,800 frs., increased in 1859, on account of the Italian war, to 2,000 frs., in 1860 to 2,300 frs., and still further in 1861 and 1862 to 2,500 frs., but again lowered in 1863, 1864, and 1865, to 2,300 frs.

The amounts to be paid by soldiers to obtain exoneration from further military service, have also varied considerably during the ten years from 1855 to 1865. During five years of this period—1856, 1860, 1863, 1864, and 1865—the sum of 500 frs. was paid for each year of military service remaining to be completed. During the two years 1857 and 1858, the sum was lowered to 350 frs., but raised in 1859 to 400 frs., and in 1861 and 1862 to 550 frs. These rates, calculated on seven years' service, which the soldier has to complete, raise the total cost of a soldier's exoneration considerably beyond the amount paid by the conscript. A seven years' soldier purchasing his discharge in 1861 and 1862 would have had to pay 3,850 frs., against 2,500 frs. required from a conscript. The lowest amount to be paid by a soldier during the period was 2,450 frs., against 1,800 frs. by the conscript.

The sums paid by the State as bounties to soldiers re-engaging, both before and after discharge, as also the bounty paid for administrative *remplaçants*, have, during the same period of ten years, varied year by year. The payment of these bounties has also been made in different instalments.

In 1856, the first year of the new system, the sum of 2,300 frs. was fixed as the bounty to soldiers re-engaging for seven years, either before discharge or within a certain period after liberation. This sum was to be issued in three instalments, one of 700 frs. immediately on re-engaging, or on being incorporated with the army, a second of 300 frs. during the service and the last of 1,000 frs. on discharge.

Soldiers re-engaging for less than seven years, were to receive for each year of service an annuity of 230 frs., to be paid on discharge.

In the years 1857 and 1858, the bounty was fixed at 1,500 frs. for seven years' service, and the annuity for periods less than seven years at 150 frs. The decree of 3rd May, 1859, granted to all *remplaçants* of seven years' contracted service, the bounty of 2,000 frs., one half payable at the time of engagement, and the other half on definitive liberation from the service; and to *remplaçants* of less than seven years, a sum of 260 frs. for each year which they agreed to serve, payable likewise in two parts, one half yearly, and the other half on discharge. The distribution of these amounts is not stated.

In 1861, 1862, and 1863, the bounty to *soldiers re-engaging*, and *remplaçants*, was fixed at 2,200 frs., of which 1,000 was paid down at once, and 1,200 on discharge. The annuity for less than seven years was fixed at 310 frs., of which 140 was to be paid yearly, and 170 on discharge.

In 1864 and 1865, the bounty was fixed at 2,300 frs., of which 1,000 was paid down at once, and 1,300 on discharge. The annuity for periods less than seven years, was fixed at 320 frs.; of which 140 was paid yearly, and 180 on discharge. Soldiers re-engaging are also entitled to extra pay of 10 centimes a-day, entirely independent of the extra pay of long service and stripes. After fourteen years' service, they have a right to extra pay of 20 centimes, but no bounty is given. The whole bounty of re-engagement is paid over to the families of men invalided, or killed in consequence of events of war.

Vast amounts have been distributed under these various heads, and the number of soldiers who have received these monies will be seen to be large. During the ten years, from 1855 to 1865, there were 125,299 soldiers, of less than fourteen years' service, who re-engaged either before or after discharge, receiving 170,232,209 frs.; and the amount calculated to be payable to these men during the ten years following, was 120,382,613 frs.; making a total of 290,614,822 frs. The sums paid for 55,101 administrative *remplacements* during the same period amounted to 57,402,449 frs., and for the seven years following the sum of 63,595,591 frs. was calculated as payable; making a total of 120,998,040 frs.

In addition to the above sums, there were, between 1856 and 1865, further payments made in the form of service-pay to soldiers, amounting to 34,626,030 frs.; and the amount payable under this head, between 1865 and 1875, was estimated at 27,269,989 frs. The total amount actually paid from the Army Dotation Fund up to 1865, was 262,260,688 frs.; and the sum estimated as payable within the ten years after 1865, was 211,248,193 frs.; making a grand total of 473,508,881 frs. paid to 180,400 soldiers and *remplaçants*.

This is all I can here state regarding this remarkable fund. It would require a separate paper to describe all its working.

XXIII.—*Formation, Apportionment, and Division of the Annual Contingent.*

The mode of obtaining soldiers under the conscription, for the annual contingent, having been fully explained, the following details will complete the subject.

The strength of the annual contingent, is every year fixed by law. It is drawn by lot out of the youths who have completed the age of 20 years, during the course of and up to the 31st December the preceding year, these youths are called the "class of that year." The apportionment of the contingent amongst departments and cantons—which, up to 1830, was made in proportion to the population, and from 1831 to 1835 in proportion to the average number of youths inscribed upon the drawing lists of a certain number of preceding years—is now made, by Imperial decree, in proportion to the number of youths inscribed upon the drawing lists of the year. Thus, in 1857, the number inscribed on the lists being 295,309, and the strength of the contingent being 100,000, the proportion of contingent to be supplied by each department was calculated at 33·868 per cent. of the numbers inscribed. For the 1856 contingent the proportion was 32·1716 per cent.

The proportion of the contingent imposed upon each canton, is required to be furnished whenever possible: and, in order to prevent any escape from the obligation, a very strict account is taken of the youths belonging to each canton. Under article 6 of the law of 21st March, 1832, the following are considered as legally domiciled in the canton:—1st, all the youths, even those emancipated, established out of the canton, abroad, absent or in prison, whose father, mother, or guardian are domiciled in any one of the communes contained in the canton; 2nd, the married youths whose father, or (in default of father) mother, is domiciled in the canton, unless they can prove themselves to be really domiciled in another canton; 3rd, the youths married and domiciled in the canton, even although their father or mother are not domiciled there; 4th, the youths residing in the canton, who have neither father, mother, nor guardian; 5th, the youths residing in the canton who are not in any of the preceding cases, but who cannot show themselves to be inscribed in any other canton.

By a circular of the Minister of War, of 1st April, 1837, foundlings brought up in an hospital have their legal domicile in the commune in which the hospital is situated; but, when they obtain their majority, they are to be inscribed in the canton where they reside, and take part in the drawing.

Immediately on the contingent being definitively settled by the Councils of Revision, the whole of the men are apportioned to the different arms of the service by the Minister of War, who decides as to the numbers according to the requirements of the service and the fitness of the men for the particular arms or branches of the army. The whole are immediately registered, and are then under the control or surveillance of the general officer commanding in the respective departments, and of the officers commanding the recruiting dépôts.

The contingent is divided into two portions, by decree of the War Minister. The first portion is called into active service immediately, whilst the second portion is, except on occasions of emergency, left at home, forming part of the reserve, and only subjected to short periods of training. The whole available or effective force of the contingent of the year has been called out, at once, on five occasions: in 1849, 1854, 1855, 1856, and 1859. The second portions of contingents of previous years were also called out in 1849 and 1854, after being left in their homes for some time.

The above remarks apply generally to the land forces, but a portion of the men drawn as conscripts for the annual contingent, are drafted into the marine forces.

The Minister of Marine annually obtains from the War Minister such a portion of the year's contingent, as may be necessary to complete the marine forces up to their fixed establishment.

The marine forces comprise two bodies, constituted like the corresponding corps of the land army: viz., the marine infantry, consisting of four regiments of thirty companies, either in activity or in dépôt, and the marine artillery, which comprises twenty-five batteries, and six companies of artificers. Both these corps have varied in strength from time to time. The apportionment between the several corps of the marines, of the men supplied out of the annual contingent, is made by the Marine Department.

The maritime forces comprise, in addition to the marine forces, the combatants of the fleet, and the non-combatants attached thereto; and in order to obtain these, the class of men in France fitted for sea-service, are inscribed on a separate list, for the maritime conscription. From that list the sailors for the fleet are drawn; and as all the youths of France are inscribed on the general list for the military conscription, all men inscribed on the maritime list are annually "*dispensed*" from military service, if they should happen to be drawn for the army contingent of the year. These men take the chance of being drawn for service in the navy.

The following table shows for a series of twenty-eight years the number of conscripts out of the annual contingent, who in each year

actually joined the land and marine forces respectively, and were incorporated with these corps.

Contingent of what Year.	Conscripts Drafted into			Contingent of what Year.	Conscripts Drafted into		
	Marines.	Land Army.	Total.		Marines.	Land Army.	Total.
1837.....	3,936	62,979	66,915	1851.....	2,067	53,023	55,090
'38.....	2,609	61,298	63,907	'52.....	7,391	47,602	54,993
'39.....	3,420	59,934	63,354	'53.....	7,939	48,250	56,180
'40.....	11,421	51,607	63,028	'54.....	7,747	101,980	109,727
'41.....	5,614	55,251	61,865	'55.....	5,109	103,106	108,216
'42.....	2,569	54,948	57,517	'56.....	5,153	82,070	87,223
'43.....	3,811	35,124	38,935	'57.....	2,207	64,258	66,465
'44.....	3,947	53,494	57,441	'58.....	5,612	57,358	62,970
'45.....	2,238	59,132	61,370	'59.....	5,479	73,258	78,737
'46.....	7,047	48,917	55,964	'60.....	4,994	24,981	29,975
'47.....	6,227	47,064	53,291	'61.....	6,649	22,496	29,145
'48.....	—	59,302	59,302	'62.....	7,421	21,938	29,359
'49.....	—	21,867	21,867	'63.....	6,346	21,501	27,847
'50.....	1,530	54,226	55,756	'64.....	6,042	20,931	26,973

It will be seen from the above table, that the number of conscripts drafted into both services, has during the past five years been small; fewer, as far as I can ascertain, than in any other year since 1818. At no time during the present century has the conscription borne so lightly as during the last five years on the population of France, as far as regards the number of men drafted into the army. Even after deducting the average number who purchased exoneration, it will be seen, judging from the strength of the contingent, that those left available in their homes, exceeded the number drafted into the army.

XXIV.—*Calling Out the Second Portion of the Contingents, incorporated with the Reserve.*

During the past twenty-four years, the Government of France has twice been under the necessity of calling out the second portions of the contingents belonging to the classes of prior years, several years after the conscripts had been left in their homes.

The Revolution of February, 1848, having necessitated an increase of the military forces, it was found requisite, before even putting *en route* the contingent of the class of 1847, to call into active service such portions of the contingents of the preceding five years' classes (1842, 1843, 1844, 1845, and 1846) as remained disposable. The conscripts of these years, who had not been called out, amounted to a total of 99,360, who were divided among corps of the land and marine forces. The putting *en route* of these men was carried out, as regards the classes of 1845 and 1846, from

the 15th to the 20th April, 1848 ; and for the classes of 1842, 1843, 1844, from the 1st to the 25th May, 1848. In order as far as possible to soften the hardship of this extensive and unexpected call into active service, Government allowed all the young married men of the classes of 1842, 1843, 1844, 1845, and 1846, comprised in this call, to remain in their homes. Moreover, the special recruiting councils established in the chief places of each department, allowed those young men of the classes of 1842, 1843, and 1844, who were indispensable to the support of their families, to remain at home. This made a reduction of 2 per cent. in the respective contingents of the three classes in question.

Again, in 1854, the Government drew out the reserves left in their homes of the contingents belonging to the classes of 1849, 1850, 1851, 1852. The number of men comprised by these reserves amounted to 158,000, who were appropriated to the land forces, and apportioned amongst the corps of the army, as follows. The call was very large, and was in addition to the contingent of the year :—

Infantry	110,260
Cavalry.....	33,216
Artillery	9,637
Engineers.....	2,598
Military equipages	2,789
<hr/>	
Total.....	<u>158,500</u>

The putting *en route* of these men took place, for the class of 1852, from the 5th to the 10th February, 1854 ; for the class of 1851, from the 20th to the 25th of the same month ; and for the classes of 1849 and 1850, from the 25th to the 30th March following. As on the previous occasion, the War Administration endeavoured to keep in view the interests of families equally with those of the State, and ordered that all the married men of the reserves who were not at once able to obtain a *remplaçant*, should be left in their homes for some months, in order to enable them to arrange for their exchange or settle their affairs.

XXV.—*The Putting in Motion of the Contingent.*

When the division of the contingent has taken place by decree of the Councils of Revision, the General commanding in the department, assisted by the Commandant of the recruiting dépôt, allots those drawn to the different corps, according to their size, physical aptitude, and profession. In France they do not endeavour, as in Germany, to group, in the same regiment, the soldiers who come from the same province and department.

When this allotment has been made, a route order is addressed to the home of the young soldier comprised in the first portion of the contingent, timed so that he may have three whole days to prepare for departure. Furnished with this order he proceeds to the chief place of the department, and there passes the review of departure, in which, if necessary, the allotments made to the different arms are revised, and a reprieve of departure is granted to the sick or convalescent. Within the twenty-four hours which follow this review, the young soldiers are sent off to join their corps.

The orders for the march of the young conscripts are generally issued in the autumn of the year in which they are enrolled. Their discharge is often given, or rather, their return to their homes is authorised, before the completion of the seventh year of service; so that six years' absence from home may be taken as the average period, and is often shorter.

XXVI.—*Varying Strength of the Contingent.*

From 1816 up to 1823 the strength of the annual contingent was only 40,000 men; in the latter year it was raised to 60,000, and in 1830 to 80,000. In the year 1854, in consequence of the war in the Crimea, the contingent, which had up to this year continued to be fixed at 80,000, was again raised to 140,000 men, and the same number was called for in 1855 and 1856. In 1857 the number was lowered to 100,000, and by the laws of 27th June, 1857, and 24th March, 1858, it was maintained at the same strength for each of these years. On account of the war in Italy, the contingents of the classes of 1858 and 1859 were again raised to 140,000 men; but peace was made in time to allow of the contingent for 1860 out of the 1859 class being reduced to 100,000 men. This same strength of contingent has been maintained in subsequent years.

In 1860, on the annexation of Nice and Savoy, the contingent drawn from the population was fixed at 2,324, out of 6,856 youths who were ascertained to have completed their twentieth year of age on or before the 31st December, 1859. The total contingent of all France, including Nice and Savoy, was in 1860 fixed at 102,234. It would be interesting to trace out the proportion of the conscripts of this new territory, who were disqualified for service by want of height or ill health, as compared with the French conscripts; but space does not permit.

XXVII.—*Proportion of Military Strength and Contingent to Population.*

In 1832, when the annual contingent was fixed at 80,000, there was nominally, for the aggregate of seven years' classes, a total

of 560,000 men; but, after deducting the *non-valides* or unfit men, the number was really reduced to about 500,000, being a proportion of about $\frac{1}{8\frac{1}{4}}$ th of the population. If the same proportion were maintained with the present population of 37 millions, the aggregate number of fit men obtained from the classes of seven years would be 578,125; not very far from the number (600,000) considered by competent men indispensable to secure the honour of the country, and maintain security at all points. It does not appear, however, that the seven classes supply this number (600,000) even with contingents of 100,000. Since 1832 the number of *non-valides* has increased, so that a contingent of 100,000 men gives only 72,000, or for seven classes about 504,000 soldiers.

Owing to the varying strength of the contingents at different periods, the demands for men for the army have been very unequal. In 1821, with a contingent of 40,000 and a population of 30 millions, the ratio was about 1,300 of contingent for every million. In 1832, with a contingent of 60,000 and a population of 32 millions, the ratio was 1,800 to each million. In 1841, with a contingent of 80,000 and a population of 34 millions, the ratio was 2,400 to each million. In 1854, with a contingent of 140,000 and a population of 35 millions, the ratio was 4,000 to every million. In 1860, with a population of 36 millions and a contingent of 140,000, the ratio was 3,900 to each million. At present the ratio is 2,700 to each million; the population being 38 millions and the contingent 100,000.

The variations in the proportions per cent. which the strength of the contingent in each year, for a series of years, bears to the total number of youths inscribed on the census lists, are shown in the following table:—

For what Year's Contingent.	Proportion per Cent. of Strength of Contingent to Youths Inscribed.	For what Year's Contingent.	Proportion per Cent. of Strength of Contingent to Youths Inscribed.
1847	25'99	1856	43'9614
'48	26'2135	'57	32'1716
'49	26'1607	'58	33'8628
		'59	45'7601
1850	26'2647		
'51	26'13	1860	32'5807*
'52	25'6622	'61	31'9822
'53	27'0000	'62	31'0611
'54	46'3688	'63	30'9187
'55	45'5726	'64	30'7230

* This proportion was taken for the Nice and Savoy contingent.

XXVIII.—*Composition and Training of the Reserve.*

In France the reserve force, as generally understood, consists primarily of the youths drawn by lot, who form the second portion of the annual contingent, but are left provisionally in their homes Secondly, of soldiers on renewable leave of absence, and sent home in anticipation of the expiration of their seven years' service; and finally, of the National Guard.

The Commandant of the recruiting dépôt of each department prepares the list of those belonging to this body comprised of the conscripts left in their homes, also of the old soldiers, and preserves their traces. The reserve remain under the orders of the general at the head of the territorial division to which they belong, who has the power of calling them out. Until lately, however, such an assemblage was rare and almost useless; so that this portion of the reserve was considered to be ill-trained, indeed almost uninstructed.

Since 1860, an attempt to organise and discipline the reserve has been made, and, in spite of some inconveniences, there has been considerable progress made. At present the men of the reserve belonging to the infantry and engineers, are assembled the first year, between the 1st October and 1st April, in the dépôt of instruction of the chief place of the department, and are there exercised for three months. In the second year they are called out for two months, and the third year for one month. After that they are only subject to half yearly calls for muster. Those destined for the cavalry and artillery are attached to the nearest corps of their arm. Thus, the men of the reserve, even the infantry, receive their military instruction from different regiments, by reason of the perpetual changes of garrison in France. It has not been thought advisable to incorporate them with the dépôt where they are assembled, nor even to charge the dépôt with the duty of clothing, equipping, and arming them; this devolves on the commandant of the recruiting dépôt, who has a special magazine at command, and causes the articles of equipment to be returned into store when the men return to their homes. Some few articles are confided to their care, but only strict necessities, which they are bound to produce, or else are punished, and have to pay the value. During the time of their military instruction—which consists specially, for the infantry, of the use of arms and marching, for cavalry, of *travail individuel*, and the handling of the musket and sabre, and for the artillery, in the working of ordnance—the men of the reserve are looked after by the corps to which they are attached, but the expenditure for them is accounted for separately. It is especially recommended that they should be treated with gentleness and

patience, with a view to give them pleasant recollections of military life; in order, say the ministerial instructions, that if their country should one day require their services, they may return to the colours with the more readiness.

This new system of training the reserve, is, however, described as having the inconvenience of multiplying the movements of soldiers and increasing the attendant expenses: it also throws on the Major of each regiment, who is already fully occupied, an increase of work and responsibility disproportioned to the time remaining at his disposal, and the authority of his rank. Its principal advantage is stated to be in giving a degree of *ensemble* and military spirit to the men of the reserve, by assembling them in considerable groups, in the midst of troops already trained. On the whole, this system has been stated to work well during the first three months of 1861 and the first two months of 1862, for the second portion of the contingent of 1859, with whom it began; and during the months of October, November, and December, 1861, for the second portion of the contingent of the class of 1860.

From all I have read, I confess I am not favourably impressed with the arrangements connected with the French reserve; but it would require a personal knowledge of the working to justify any criticism. I am inclined to think that, as so often occurs in the case of reserves, the system cannot work well, unless very efficiently administered. A good administration of the reserve would, however, entail an expenditure nearly equal to that for the regular army, which is never willingly incurred.

The strength of the French reserve varies considerably. In time of profound peace, when the army is kept at a low establishment, and casualties are lessened, the reserve is raised to a great force, by the conscripts forming the year's contingent being left in their homes in considerable numbers. In time of war, on the contrary, the reserve is heavily drawn on, indeed sometimes exhausted, by the whole contingent of the year, as well as the reserve, being at once drafted into the army. In 1849, and during the war with Russia in 1855, as also in 1859 in the Italian war, the reserve was entirely used up. After a great war, the pressure is considerably increased for a time, by soldiers being transferred from the active army to the reserve, before the expiration of their period of service. After several years of peace, the strength of the reserve is great. At present it must be stronger than it has ever before been.

The following table will show the strength of the reserve in France for a series of years. I wish I had space to show the years severally in which these men are entitled to be freed.

Table of the Reserves.

1st January	Soldiers who had Served.	Conscripts who had not been under the Colours.	Strength of Reserve.	Struck Off Army and not brought on Reserve.	Total Reserve including Struck Off.	On Leave from Army.	Total actually in Reserve.
1843.....	5,031	42,890	47,921	—	47,921	—	47,921
'44.....	35,900	36,038	71,938	—	71,938	—	71,938
'45.....	37,513	51,993	89,506	—	89,506	10,090	99,596
'46.....	11,569	71,300	82,869	—	82,869	—	82,869
'47.....	74	80,375	80,449	—	80,449	—	80,449
'48.....	49	86,263	86,312	—	86,312	—	86,312
'49.....	1,038	13,893	14,931	—	14,931	—	14,931
1850.....	852	61,748	62,600	—	62,600	—	62,600
'51.....	904	68,883	69,787	—	69,787	—	69,787
'52.....	303	97,126	97,329	—	97,329	—	97,329
'53.....	126	126,763	126,889	—	126,889	—	126,889
'54.....	213	157,589	157,802	—	157,802	—	157,802
'55.....	287	39,152	39,439	—	39,439	—	39,439
'56.....	127	11,528	11,755	—	11,755	—	11,755
'57.....	141	10,723	10,864	—	10,864	87,609	98,473
'58.....	108	47,439	47,547	—	47,547	161,261	208,808
'59.....	80	13,807	13,887	—	13,887	135,407	149,294
1860.....	71	20,946	11,017	—	11,017	64,471	75,488
'61.....	107,471	44,726	152,197	—	152,197	—	152,197
'62.....	83,056	76,018	159,074	—	159,074	—	159,074
'63.....	55,547	110,281	165,827	11,418	177,245	—	177,245
'64.....	37,020	141,784	178,804	—	178,804	—	178,804
'65.....	21,171	175,246	196,417	8,762	205,179	—	205,179

The second portion of the reserve, termed the National Guard, is composed of Frenchmen from 25 to 50 years of age, accustomed to the service. Under the provisions of the decree of the 11th January, 1852, which still obtains, the National Guard exists only in a small number of places; and as its organisation is at present neither general nor permanent, it can hardly be considered as capable of serving as a basis for effectually increasing the reserve of the French army.

XXIX.—*Voluntary Enlistment.*

As already stated, besides those drawn as conscripts out of the class of each year, and their substitutes or *remplaçants*, the French army contains men voluntarily enlisted.

The usual duration of voluntary enlistment is seven years; but in time of war the recruiting law allows any man who satisfies the required conditions, to enlist for two years and upwards. In any case voluntary enlistees cannot be sent on furlough without their consent. These are the conditions required from a man who presents himself to contract a voluntary engagement. To be a Frenchman; to have

completed 16 years of age if for the marine service, and 17 years if for the land army; to be of the prescribed height, which is at present fixed at 1 metre 55 centimetres; to enjoy his civil rights; to be neither married nor a widower with children; to produce a certificate of regular life and habits; if less than 20 years of age, and of good constitution; not to be more than 30 years of age, unless he has already served; to fulfil the requirements of the arm to which he desires to belong.

These conditions being fulfilled, the young man, furnished with a certificate of acceptance, presents himself before the mayor of the chief place of a canton, who, after various verifications, prepares the act of engagement in presence of two witnesses, reads it aloud, signs it, and has it signed by the voluntary enlistee and his witnesses. The voluntary enlistee has the right to select not only the arm of the service, but even the particular corps which he desires to join, provided he is fit for that branch. A young man who voluntarily enlists into the service prior to the period that he would be liable to be drawn, is invariably reckoned as one of the contingent of the year to which he may belong; so that no additional call is made on the other youths of the commune to which he belongs, as in the case of exemptions. Many youths of the class of the year voluntarily enter the service in anticipation of being drawn as conscripts, as shown in the following return. The following are the numbers who thus voluntarily entered the marine and military forces during a series of twenty-nine years, and were counted as part of the contingent of the year:—

In what Year's Contingent Reckoned.	Numbers of the Contingent who on the Drawing of Lots were found to have Voluntarily Enlisted.	In what Year's Contingent Reckoned.	Numbers of the Contingent who on the Drawing of Lots were found to have Voluntarily Enlisted.	In what Year's Contingent Reckoned.	Numbers of the Contingent who on the Drawing of Lots were found to have Voluntarily Enlisted.
1837.....	3,984	1847	13,916	1857	1,838
'38	7,216	'48	7,103	'58	3,368
'39	7,776	'49	19,635	'59	1,118
'40	7,631	'50	10,059	'60	2,723
'41	10,062	'51	12,413	'61	3,144
'42	12,809	'52	12,941	'62	2,579
'43	6,996	'53	12,372	'63	5,074
'44	8,947	'54	6,082	'64	1,724
'45	6,710	'55	2,277		
'46	12,132	'56	6,082		

I have not separated the few volunteers to the marine forces, from those who voluntarily enlisted in the land army. The men who voluntarily enlisted in the marine branch between 1837 and 1864,

are only in number 857, showing that service in the marines force of France is not favourably viewed.

A young man, having voluntarily enlisted, and completed his legal obligation, is then directed to join his corps, and if he does not do so within a month after the day fixed for him, in the order of march, he is, unless the Commanding Officer has been informed of his going into hospital, or decease on the road, prosecuted as insubordinate (*insoumis*).

In 1860, a decree, dated 13th April, was approved of by the Emperor and issued by the Minister of War, lowering by 1 centimetre the standard heights fixed in 1847 for men voluntarily enlisting, for all arms, (excepting the infantry), which are recruited with men above 1 metre 56 centimetres, up to 1 metre 70 centimetres in height.

This modification was stated by the Minister of War to be indispensable on the following grounds. Owing to the contingents of the special arms of the service having been considerably increased, and the recruiting of the Imperial Guard by drafts from corps of the line having withdrawn a great number of men of stature. Also, because exonerations cause a loss every year of many tall and vigorous men belonging to families in easy circumstances or exercising useful professions, who can easily obtain the funds to pay the price of exoneration, whereby a part of the elements which are indispensable to secure a good supply of men of stature, are withdrawn from the army, and the relation between the annual contingents and the wants of the service are greatly affected.

These various causes entail the serious inconvenience of lowering the average height of the infantry corps, and thus give rise to great difficulties in filling up their grenadier companies, and the grenadier regiments of the Imperial Guard.

The following return will show the numbers who have voluntarily enlisted during a series of twenty-four years, including the men (as shown above) who enlisted in anticipation of being drawn as conscripts; as also, the number of soldiers who, after liberation, voluntarily re-engaged, after the law of 1855 came into operation.

I would specially request attention to the last column, which shows the number of old soldiers who, after discharge from the army, returned to the military service. In 1855, when the bounty was first offered to induce men to return, it will be seen that out of the large number of old soldiers then in France only 1,477 accepted the offer. This and other facts prove that a military life is not so much in favour with the French people.

Return of all Voluntary Engagements Contracted during each Year for the French Forces and for the Foreign Corps,

Years in which the Engage- ments were Con- tracted.	Voluntary Engagements of Men for the French Troops, contracted by them in the									Number of Soldiers included in Total, who after Liberation Voluntarily Re-engaged.
	Interior, Under the Conditions of			Algeria, Under the Conditions of			Grand Total, Under the Conditions of			
	Law of 21st March, 1832.	Law of 26th April, 1855.	Total.	Law of 21st March, 1832.	Law of 26th April, 1855.	Total.	Law of 21st March, 1832.	Law of 26th April, 1855.	Total.	
1841 ..	5,906	—	5,906	—	—	—	5,906	—	5,906	—
'42 ..	6,309	—	6,309	—	—	—	6,309	—	6,309	—
'43 ..	6,056	—	6,056	—	—	—	6,309	—	6,056	—
'44 ..	5,855	—	5,855	—	—	—	5,855	—	5,855	—
'45 ..	6,759	—	6,759	—	—	—	6,759	—	6,759	—
'46 ..	7,189	—	7,189	—	—	—	7,189	—	7,189	—
'47 ..	9,251	—	9,251	—	—	—	9,251	—	9,251	—
'48 ..	19,115	—	—	113	—	113	19,228	—	19,228	—
'49 ..	17,011	—	—	130	—	130	17,141	—	17,141	—
1850 ..	8,597	—	8,597	85	—	85	8,682	—	8,682	—
'51 ..	10,234	—	10,234	107	—	107	10,341	—	10,341	—
'52 ..	10,367	—	10,376	130	—	130	10,497	—	10,497	—
'53 ..	8,489	—	8,489	111	—	111	8,600	—	8,600	—
'54 ..	16,566	—	16,566	110	—	110	16,676	—	16,676	—
'55 ..	21,738	—	21,738	—	—	217	21,955	—	21,955	1,477
'56 ..	19,392	—	19,392	154	—	154	19,546	—	19,546	3,336
'57 ..	6,742	—	6,742	86	—	86	6,828	—	6,828	1,270
'58 ..	11,703	—	11,703	142	—	142	11,845	—	11,845	1,907
'59 ..	16,025	—	16,025	166	—	166	16,191	—	16,191	2,244
1860 ..	12,860	—	12,860	72	—	72	12,932	—	12,932	2,139
'61 ..	14,752	—	14,752	158	—	158	14,910	—	14,910	3,974
'62 ..	8,523	3,319	11,842	74	55	129	8,597	3,374	11,971	3,374
'63 ..	5,171	2,439	7,610	88	84	172	5,259	2,523	7,782	2,523
'64 ..	7,853	2,047	9,900	84	39	123	7,937	2,086	10,023	2,086

XXX.—Re-engaging of Soldiers before and after Liberation from the Service.

It has long been the practice in the French army for some soldiers to continue in the service after completing the seven years' period for which, by the conscription law, they were required to serve. Prior to the great change introduced into the French system by the law of 26th April, 1855, authorising the payment of bounties, the number of re-engaged soldiers were few, but have considerably increased since then. The law was based on the consideration that a trained soldier, knowing his trade, ought, if possible, to be retained in the army; and thence the bounties and extra pay given under that law for re-engagements, whether contracted before discharge, or within two years after having quitted the army.

Re-engagement is allowed for any number of years not less than three, and not more than seven, and a second re-engagement may be made. The pecuniary advantages granted to soldiers who re-

engage, either before or after discharge, have already been fully detailed under the head of the "Army Dotation Fund."

The period within which soldiers might re-enlist after liberation was, as a general rule, limited to two years, by the law of 1855; but in that year it was specially decreed, having regard to the state of war, and considering the interests of the army, as well as those of the population, that the provisions of the law should extend to soldiers who had been liberated three years before (in 1852), provided they were not above 35 years of age. This exceptional boon ceased with the cause that had given rise to it. It will be seen from the above table, that the number of soldiers who, having left the army for three years, re-engaged under those special conditions of 1855 was small—only 1,477 in the first year, out of the large number of soldiers that must have been discharged during the previous three years.*

The following table contains an abstract of the number of re-engagements contracted, in each year from 1841 to 1864, prior to liberation from the first period of service.

Return of the Number of Soldiers Re-engaged prior to Liberation in each Year.

	Number of Men Re-engaged.		The Men who Re-engaged were in the Ranks of			The Men Re-engaged for Corps.		
	Total Number in each Year.	Of these there were for the Gendarmerie.	Sous-officers.	Corporals or Brigadiers and Soldiers.	Total.	For their own Corps.	For other Corps.	Total.
1841....	4,299	—	2,761	1,538	4,299	—	—	—
'42....	4,795	—	3,077	1,718	4,795	4,691	104	4,795
'43....	4,818	—	3,000	1,818	4,818	4,805	13	4,818
'44....	4,056	—	2,534	1,522	4,056	3,671	385	4,056
'45....	3,889	—	2,420	1,469	3,889	3,538	351	3,889
'46....	4,394	—	2,581	1,813	4,394	4,316	78	4,394
'47....	4,656	—	2,772	1,884	4,656	4,624	32	4,656
'48....	5,222	—	2,925	2,297	5,222	5,198	24	5,222
'49....	4,480	—	2,713	1,767	4,480	4,432	48	4,480
1850....	6,033	—	3,052	2,981	6,033	6,031	2	6,033
'51....	5,801	—	3,235	2,566	5,801	5,755	46	5,801
'52....	6,400	—	3,582	2,818	6,400	5,867	533	6,400
'53....	6,003	—	3,397	2,606	6,003	5,577	326	6,003
'54....	7,807	—	3,941	3,866	7,807	5,612	2,195	7,807
'55....	23,354	—	10,175	13,179	23,354	23,184	170	23,354
'56....	18,707	—	5,342	13,365	18,707	18,566	141	18,707
'57....	9,472	—	2,757	6,715	9,472	9,421	51	9,472
'58....	12,008	2,689	5,533	6,475	12,008	11,941	67	12,008
'59....	15,272	—	3,356	11,216	15,272	15,213	59	15,272
1860....	29,153	—	5,573	23,580	29,153	29,023	130	29,153
'61....	27,364	—	4,150	23,214	27,364	27,087	277	27,364
'62....	21,188	633	—	—	—	—	—	—
'63....	9,587	349	—	—	—	—	—	—
'64....	8,136	316	—	—	—	—	—	—

* The number of old soldiers who, after leaving the army, return to the service in after years is also seen to be small, in reference to the numbers annually discharged, averaging about 60,000 per annum.

It will be seen from this table that, at periods of political crises, a considerable augmentation takes place in the number of re-enlisters; as in 1848, 1859, and 1860. The same thing takes place in time of war, and was especially remarkable in 1855, 1856. The increase of the number of re-engagements during these years, may however in part be attributed to the application of the provisions of the law of 1855. The re-engagements in 1860, 1861 and 1862, will be seen to have exceeded the numbers in former years. This increase is attributed to the law of 24th July, 1860, which authorised soldiers in their fourth year of service to re-engage beyond the period for which bound by the conscription. The falling off in the number of re-engagements in 1864 is attributed to the fact of soldiers having availed themselves of that permission, thereby anticipating the usual period for re-engaging.

XXXI.—*Invaliding.*

There are two kinds of invaliding. The first is pronounced by the Inspector-General on account of wounds received in an authorised service, or of infirmities contracted in the land or sea forces. The statement is made out by the Council of Administration of the Corps, *visé* by the Sous-intendant, and approved by the inspector-General, on the declaration of two officers of health, that the man is not in a state ever to perform active service.

The second kind of invaliding is either for wounds received out of the service, or for infirmities contracted out of the land or sea forces. The statement is made by the officer commanding the recruiting dépôt, *visé* by the Sous-intendant and approved by the General commanding the subdivision. With these three officers the Commandant of the Departmental Gendarmerie is associated, to form the commission which pronounces the invaliding, upon the advice of two officers of health. I have not space for entering tables showing the numbers invalided.

XXXII.—*Liberation.*

In time of peace, those who have been drawn by the conscription are liberated on or before the 31st December of the seventh year following their enrolment, whether they have appeared under the colours or not; but in time of war, they obtain their liberation only after the contingent destined to replace them, has joined the army. Voluntary enlisters, on the contrary, are always, even in time of war, entitled to liberation the very day of the expiration of their seventh year of service. In calculating the seven years' service, however, deductions are made for the time passed as insubordinate, absent from the ranks without leave, confined under sentence as deserter, or in transportation. The certificate of discharge is made

out by the Council of Administration, *visé* by the Sous-intendant, and invested with the signature of the Inspector-General, or of the General commanding the division.

The date of service for conscripts reckons from the 1st January of each year in which drawn. The drawing, however, does not take place until from three to six months after the beginning of the year; and the recruits are seldom put in motion to join the army until September or October, whilst the liberation or discharge from the army is often made in anticipation of the close of the seventh year. Six years is, therefore, about the average period passed under the colours.

The following return shows clearly the number of soldiers discharged from the army, during a series of years. It will be seen that, in 1854, 1855, 1858, and 1859, when war was being carried on, the discharges fall far below the average number freed in other years from military service:—

Return of Soldiers Discharged in each Year.

Years in which Dis- charged.	Discharged in the Course of, or at the End of each Year from											
	From Troops in the Interior of France.			Conscripts Left in Homes on Various Grounds at the Close of 7 Years.	From Forces in Algeria.	From the Army of the East.	Army of Occupation in Rome and Italy.	From the Forces in China.	From the Force in Syria.	From the Forces in Mexico.	From the Force in Cochin China.	Grand Total Dis- charged in each Year.
	From Corps at end of the Year.	Sent Home in Anti- cipation.	Total.									
1842...	—	42,411	42,411	3,347	13,708	—	—	—	—	—	—	59,466
'43...	—	42,495	42,495	3,396	11,940	—	—	—	—	—	—	57,840
'44...	—	41,707	41,707	764	11,552	—	—	—	—	—	—	54,023
'45...	—	39,477	39,477	821	10,773	—	—	—	—	—	—	51,071
'46...	—	35,296	35,296	824	14,543	—	—	—	—	—	—	50,663
'47...	—	39,470	39,470	800	12,530	—	—	—	—	—	—	52,809
'48...	—	43,013	43,013	813	10,526	—	—	—	—	—	—	54,352
'49...	23,659	27,703	51,362	2,405	9,547	—	—	—	—	—	—	63,314
1850...	16,058	42,562	48,620	2,616	9,740	—	—	—	—	—	—	70,976
'51...	9,354	39,857	49,211	1,893	9,435	—	—	—	—	—	—	60,539
'52...	4,916	39,530	44,446	1,633	9,864	—	—	—	—	—	—	55,943
'53...	8,961	32,867	41,828	1,616	9,685	—	—	—	—	—	—	53,129
'54...	9,111	—	9,111	—	1,587	2,598	258	—	—	—	—	13,554
'55...	24,279	—	24,279	—	4,640	10,087	1,475	—	—	—	—	40,481
'56...	13,777	36,305	50,082	—	3,149	10,813	224	—	—	—	—	64,268
'57...	10,681	37,252	47,933	3,500	4,368	—	15	—	—	—	—	55,816
'58...	8,094	36,331	44,425	2,515	2,592	—	136	—	—	—	—	49,668
'59...	6,729	29,860	36,589	2,203	3,956	—	4,023	—	—	—	—	46,771
1860...	4,958	65,837	70,295	3,669	394	—	950	191	132	—	—	76,131
'61...	10,246	58,916	69,162	3,695	5,825	—	342	101	—	—	—	79,125
'62...	4,833	65,277	70,110	3,871	3,310	—	121	—	—	396	73	77,881
'63...	7,496	47,195	54,391	4,587	3,115	—	371	—	—	1,165	150	63,779
'64...	4,516	39,612	44,128	3,421	3,082	—	236	—	—	3,041	103	54,011

Every year the Minister of War, in his report to the Emperor on the recruiting of the army, shows the numbers both of the active army and reserve, who are entitled to discharge. The recruiting report for the year 1864 states the numbers of non-commissioned officers and soldiers entitled to be discharged for a series of years, as follows :—

Date when Discharge may be Claimed.	Non-commissioned Officers, Corporals and Soldiers.	Proportion per 1,000.
31st December, 1864.....	3,217	1
„ '65.....	53,190	13
„ '66.....	57,960	15
„ '67.....	55,079	14
„ '68.....	59,162	16
„ '69.....	60,332	16
„ '70.....	50,133	13
„ '71, and beyond	45,391	12
Total.....	385,373	100

In like manner, as regards the reserve, the numbers to be discharged in each year are also stated as follows :—

Year of Discharge.	Old Soldiers.	Young Soldiers.	Total.
1865.....	17,922	1,367	19,289
'66.....	2,618	30,461	33,079
'67.....	477	32,805	33,082
'68.....	113	36,052	36,165
'69.....	32	36,197	36,229
'70, and beyond	9	38,364	30,373
Total	21,171	175,246	196,417

The above table is important, as showing, by the large number left in the reserve, that the numbers drafted into the army from the conscripts, have of late years, relatively with other years, been but few.

XXXIII.—*Misdemeanours.*

The Minister of War devotes a separate division of his annual report, to the details of those kinds of misdemeanours which arise out of the system of recruiting the army of France. The tables in the appendix to the report show in detail the numbers condemned, acquitted, and the total of misdemeanants accused under each separate article of the recruiting law.

The first is that of fraudulent omissions from the census lists.

Under article 38 of the law of 21st March, 1832, all frauds and manœuvres by means of which a young man has been omitted from

the census tables, are referred to the ordinary tribunals, and punished by imprisonment of from a month, to a year's duration. The young men who have been omitted, if convicted as the authors or accomplices of such frauds or manœuvres, are at the expiration of their sentence inscribed upon the drawing lists, and the numbers that will be called first to form the contingent are assigned to them.

The second class are those designated *insoumis*, which I have translated as "insubordinates."

Under article 39 of the law of 21st March, 1832, it is declared that any young soldier who, having received an order of route, does not arrive at his destination within a month after the day fixed by this order, is—except in the case of *force majeure*, or unavoidable hindrances—punished as *insoumis*, or insubordinate, by imprisonment of not less than a month's duration, and not more than a year. Insubordinates are judged by the council of war of the military division in which they are arrested. The time during which young soldiers have been under sentence as insubordinate, does not reckon on account of the seven years of required service. In reference to recruiting, there are no longer either refractories or deserters, only insubordinates.

The following statements give the details of the insubordinates for a series of years:—

To what Classes of Conscripts belonging.	On the 1st January.	Arrested or gave Them- selves up.	Re- moved from Lists.	Still at Large.	Total.	Con- demned by Councils of War.	Number of Insubordinates in each Year.			
							To what Class.	In what Year.	Total.	Still at Large.
1831 to 1845	1847	5,691	—	10,512	—	3,110	1845	1846	321	298
'36 " '50	'52	5,997	1,384	6,943	14,324	3,074	'50	'51	446	251
'41 " '55	'57	4,446	1,429	11,797	17,672	2,286	'55	'56	1,750	1,577
" " '56	'58	4,649	1,482	11,766	17,897	2,403	'56	'57	163	160
" " '57	'59	4,919	1,481	12,410	18,810	2,562	'57	'58	15	15
" " '58	'60	5,274	1,604	14,425	21,303	2,750	'58	'59	1,310	1,208
" " '59	'61	5,508	1,664	14,427	21,599	2,894	'59	'60	171	159
" " '60	'62	5,872	2,020	15,224	23,116	3,064	'60	'61	279	254
" " '61	'63	6,160	2,254	15,273	24,687	3,195	'61	'62	300	242
" " '62	'64	6,437	2,315	16,936	25,668	3,296	'62	'63	288	238
" " '63	'65	6,668	2,482	17,411	26,561	3,405	'63	'64	289	231

The small number of insubordinates of the 1857 class (15) is attributable to 68,055 men of that class for the land forces, having only been put *en route* to join in the month of December, 1858. The fifteen insubordinates are out of 5,870 young soldiers called into active service from the marine forces, in the month of October preceding.

The third class of misdemeanours is that arising out of persons harbouring, concealing, favouring, or acting as accomplices of, insubordinates. Under article 40 of the law of 21st March, 1832, any one convicted of harbouring or taking into their service an insubordinate, may be punished by imprisonment not exceeding six months. This penalty may, according to circumstances, be reduced to a fine of from 20 to 200 frs.

Any one convicted of favouring the evasion of an insubordinate, is punished by imprisonment of from one month to a year. The same penalty is pronounced against those who, by culpable manœuvres, have prevented or retarded the departure of young soldiers. If the delinquent is a public functionary employed by the Government, or minister of a sect paid by the State, the penalty may be carried as far as two years' imprisonment, and the guilty person is, besides, condemned to a fine not exceeding 2,000 frs.

The fourth, fifth, and sixth classes of misdemeanours are those arising out of youths disabling themselves for service, and others aiding therein. The return distinguishes the disability effected by the youth when merely belonging to the class of the year, from that effected between the closing of the contingent of the canton, and being put into active service. The law also inflicts on all accomplices and on public functionaries punishment for aiding in this disability.

Under article 41, youths called out to form part of the contingent of their class, who are accused of having rendered themselves unfit, for military service, either temporarily or permanently, with the object of escaping the obligations imposed by the recruiting law, are referred to the tribunals by the councils of revision, and, if convicted, are punished by imprisonment of from one month to a year. Young soldiers who, during the interval between the closing of the contingent of their canton and their being called into activity have been guilty of the same misdemeanour, are also handed over to the tribunals, and punished by the same penalty. At the expiration of their sentence, both are at the disposal of the Minister of War, for the period that the class of which they form part, owes to the State. The youths so condemned are not, however, deprived of the right of finding a *remplaçant*. A similar sentence is pronounced against accomplices, and if these be doctors, surgeons, officers of health, or apothecaries, the duration of the imprisonment is from two months to a year, besides which a fine of from 200 to 1,000 frs. may be imposed without prejudice to more severe sentences in the cases provided for in the penal code; for instance, in the event of mutilation, causing death, or inability to work for more than twenty days, in which case the misdemeanour becomes a crime.

The minister of war's report also shows the number of soldiers in the different branches of the army who, on the 1st January of

each year, have their service prolonged by reason of judicial condemnations, by virtue of articles 39 and 42 of the law of the 21st March, 1832. Article 42 declares that the time passed in a state of detention, in virtue of a judgment, does not reckon for the years of service required by law.

The following table, exhibiting the whole number of condemnations and acquittals that have taken place in reference to misdemeanours connected with the conscription during a series of years, will show the extent to which this forfeiture of service is carried:—

	Condemned.	Acquitted.	Total.		Condemned.	Acquitted.	Total.
1845.....	45	20	65	1858	32	17	49
'46.....	93	65	158	'59	40	27	161
'50.....	43	35	78	'60	52	34	86
'51.....	52	36	88	'61	44	27	71
'55.....	121	64	185	'62	14	32	46
'56.....	98	78	176	'63 ...	25	17	42
'57.....	35	33	68	'64	38	19	57

Return of Soldiers present with their Corps on 1st January of each Year, who had Prolongations of Service by reason of Judicial Condemnations, under Articles 39 and 42 of the Law of 21st March, 1832, distinguishing the Corps and Arms of the Service to which the Men belong.

	1847.	1852.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
<i>Imperial Guard.</i>											
Regiments of Grenadiers and of Voltigeurs, and battalion of Chasseurs à pied } Regiment of Zouaves	—	—	80	29	20	16	14	12	17	13	9
Total infantry	—	—	80	29	20	16	14	13	17	13	9
Regiment of Cuirassiers	—	—	10	7	13	4	8	6	6	5	5
„ Dragoons ...	—	—	2	2	2	1	4	8	5	7	1
„ Lancers	—	—	4	4	4	6	3	3	3	—	—
„ Chasseurs	—	—	—	—	6	—	6	4	4	—	2
„ Guides.....	—	—	11	14	5	4	4	2	8	3	4
Total cavalry	—	—	27	27	30	15	25	23	26	15	12
Artillery	—	—	6	1	3	8	13	10	12	7	5
Engineers	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	—	1
Military equipages	—	—	1	—	—	2	1	—	—	1	4
Total of imperial guard	—	—	114	57	53	41	53	49	58	36	31

Return of Soldiers present with their Corps on 1st January of each year—contd.

	1847.	1852.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
<i>Troops of the Line.</i>											
Regiments of infantry, } battalions of Chas- seurs à pied, admini- strative workmen, and hospital atten- dants, regiments of the line	2,711	3,776	3,750	3,456	3,886	4,036	3,850	3,476	4,444	4,627	4,315
Light Zouaves	180	128	198	331	261	300	286	263	241	330	341
Total	2,891	3,904	3,948	3,787	4,147	4,336	4,137	3,739	4,685	4,957	4,656
Foreign regiment.....	401	324	1	1	2	9	214	5	9	20	234
Artillery corps	—	—	34	75	55	84	60	56	43	47	48
Battalions of African } light infantry	4,901	4,313	2,585	2,608	3,172	3,640	3,615	3,532	3,344	2,421	2,567
Companies of discipline } Sous-officers of veterans	241	358	182	173	172	244	259	310	288	250	297
Musicians veterans.....	15	6	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	5,558	5,001	2,809	2,857	3,401	3,941	4,138	3,903	3,684	2,738	3,146
Total infantry	8,449	8,905	6,757	6,644	7,548	8,277	8,275	7,642	8,369	7,695	7,802
Cavalry of the reserve, } of the line	703	1,051	1,139	1,210	1,142	1,236	1,190	1,149	1,212	1,218	1,227
Light cavalry of the } remount	—	—	38	28	26	16	20	13	13	8	7
Total cavalry	703	1,051	1,177	1,238	1,168	1,252	1,210	1,162	1,225	1,226	1,234
Regiments of artillery....	283	360	443	357	419	539	503	457	461	495	475
Workmen of artillery } of train and parks	28	40	3	1	3	3	5	3	2	1	4
Squadrons of artillery } train	—	—	—	—	—	—	58	69	78	80	83
Veteran gunners	—	—	1	1	8	7	8	5	8	13	3
Total artillery	311	400	447	359	430	549	574	534	549	589	567
Regiments of Engi- } neers and Workmen	50	83	71	48	40	50	33	70	70	66	50
Veterans of Engineers....	3	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Engineers	53	84	71	48	40	50	33	70	70	66	50
Military equipages, } squadrons, and workmen	49	54	138	84	69	62	91	71	95	102	140
Total troops of the line	9,565	10,494	8,590	8,373	9,255	10,190	10,183	9,479	10,308	9,678	9,793
Grand total of guard } and line.....	9,565	10,494	8,704	8,430	9,308	10,231	10,285	9,528	10,366	9,714	9,824

The seventh class of misdemeanours are those involving fraud in respect to obtaining *remplaçants*, or substitutes. The law applies both to the conscript and to accomplices in connection with the exchange; the accomplices being the most severely punished.

Under article 43, any substitution or remplacement effected, either in contravention of the decrees made in this respect, or by means of forged documents or fraudulent manœuvres, is referred to the tribunals, and on judgment being pronounced annulling the act of substitution or remplacement, the conscript is bound to rejoin his corps, or exonerate himself from the service, within a month after the notification of this judgment. Any one who has contributed to the fraudulent substitution or remplacement, either as originator or accomplice, is punished by imprisonment of from three months to a year, without prejudice to more severe penalties.

The eighth class of misdemeanours is that of abuse of authority on the part of public functionaries and medical men. The return divides those accused into the two classes, civil and military. The punishment is awarded under the penal code, and not under that of the recruiting law; but under article 44, any public functionary or officer, either civil or military, who, under any pretence whatever, has authorised or admitted exemptions, deductions, or exclusions, other than those decreed, or who has arbitrarily given any extension to the duration, rules, or conditions of levies, engagements, or re-engagements, is convicted of abuse of authority, and is punished by the penalties laid down in article 185 of the penal code, without prejudice to more severe penalties pronounced in this code, in the other cases provided for.

The ninth class of misdemeanour is that arising out of bribery of medical officers, called by the councils of revision to aid in carrying out the conscription.

Under article 45, doctors, surgeons, or officers of health, called to the councils of revision for the purpose of giving their advice (in conformity with article 16), who have accepted gratuities or promises, in return for favouring young men whom they have to examine, are punished by imprisonment of from two months to a year. This penalty is adjudged whether, at the moment of accepting such gifts or promises, they have already been chosen to attend at the council, or whether such gifts or promises have been accepted in anticipation of the functions they would have to fill. They are forbidden, under the same penalty, to accept anything, even for an invaliding justly pronounced.

The tenth class of misdemeanours comprises all criminal acts in connection with recruiting committed by individuals, other than those specified under each of the above divisions. The return in the annual report only distinguishes this class since the year 1850.

Under article 46, the civil and military tribunals have it within their power to apply the ordinary penal laws to the misdemeanours to which recruiting may give rise.

XXXIV.—Conclusion.

Having thus endeavoured to place before you in detail all the operations connected with the system of conscription in France, I proceed briefly to sum up the recruiting results secured for the army by the conscription; and to that end I have prepared the two following tables for a series of twenty-four years, from 1841 up to 1864:—

Table of the Contingents.

Year.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
To which Class belongs.	In which Lots were Drawn.	Deducted by Virtue of Article 14 of the Law of 21 March, 1832, Dispensed.	Declared Fit for Service in Virtue of Definitive Decisions.	Youths Inscribed Conditionally, on the Terms of Articles 26 and 27 of the Law.	Number of Youths who did not Appear.	Total Youths Included in Cols. 1, 2, 3 and 4.	Numbers which Cantons could not Supply, being Exhausted.	Strength of Contingent.	Number of Youths who did not Appear, included in Col. 2.	Youths intended to Replace, if necessary, those Conditionally Inscribed under Articles 26 and 27 of the Law.
1840	1841	6,625	72,941	342	—	79,908	92	80,000	2,184	383
'41	'42	7,318	72,399	227	—	79,944	56	80,000	2,287	242
'42	'43	7,953	71,695	215	—	79,863	137	80,000	2,598	290
'43	'44	7,110	72,558	238	—	79,906	94	80,000	2,107	268
'44	'45	7,275	72,490	141	—	79,906	94	80,000	2,074	182
'45	'46	7,739	71,919	260	—	79,918	82	80,000	1,968	287
'46	'47	8,711	70,930	248	—	79,889	111	80,000	2,154	297
'47	'48	8,329	71,313	327	—	79,969	31	80,000	3,229	323
'48	'49	10,439	69,271	246	—	79,956	44	80,000	2,701	299
1849	1850	8,310	71,400	232	—	79,942	58	80,000	2,585	246
'50	'51	7,445	72,295	229	—	79,969	31	80,000	2,382	191
'51	'52	7,704	72,146	139	—	79,989	11	80,000	2,426	97
'52	'53	7,788	71,792	390	—	79,970	30	80,000	2,427	189
'53	'54	16,219	121,510	242	—	137,971	2,129	140,000	4,425	293
'54	'55	22,351	114,544	781	—	137,676	2,324	140,000	5,103	473
'55	'56	20,895	116,327	337	—	137,559	2,441	140,000	4,720	322
'56	'57	10,962	88,582	176	—	99,720	280	100,000	2,851	174
'57	'58	11,089	88,372	124	—	99,585	415	100,000	2,967	121
'58	'59	15,256	117,830	108	3,704	136,898	3,112	140,000	—	199
1859	1860	12,667	84,663	98	2,357	99,785	215	100,000	—	142
'60	'61	12,159	84,966	98	2,606	99,829	171	100,000	—	132
'61	'62	11,029	85,849	204	2,792	99,874	126	100,000	—	227
'62	'63	8,649	88,539	170	2,509	99,867	133	100,000	—	186
'63	'64	10,739	86,416	208	2,451	99,814	186	100,000	—	229
Total	—	254,791	2,010,747	5,780	16,419	2,287,707	19,403	2,300,000	51,188	3,792

Some explanatory remarks in reference to the above table may be required. In column 1 are entered those who obtain dispensations from military service, but still form part of the nominal strength of the contingent. Column 2 shows the strength declared fit for service: but these are liable to deductions on various grounds. Column 3 shows the numbers who have appealed to judicial courts for exemption; but these are counterbalanced by the numbers in column 9 who are temporarily inscribed and take the places of those whose appeals are successful. Columns 4 and 8 show the number of youths who did not present themselves for drawing and examination. These are shown in two separate columns, because a change has recently taken place in the mode of accounting for them. Up to 1859 they were included amongst the number fit for service, but since then they have been struck out, as having disappeared, and apparently not being expected to be found. Column 6 shows the number that could not be supplied by cantons, owing to the lists of youths being exhausted without obtaining the number of fit men. In the years when the contingent was raised to 140,000, these deficiencies are seen to be considerable, thereby proving how heavily the conscription bore on the population. No doubt the small size of most of the communes, and their very limited population, tend to cause this exhaustion. But still, it must be borne in mind that, in 1859, when 3,112 men could not be supplied to complete the contingent of the year, the proportion which the strength of that contingent bore to the males of France, was only about a 140th part. Thus, in a commune of 500 souls, half of them being males, the demand on the commune would only be to the extent of two fit youths of 20 years of age; and it is a startling fact that a considerable-sized village should be unable to supply two youths free from bodily defects, for the army. Column 7 shows the strength of the contingent of the year.

The other table gives further details, showing in a more complete view how largely the number of fit men were struck out of the contingent on various grounds, differing from those specified in the preceding table. I may here observe, that the discrepancy in column 5 of the following table and the number in column 7 of the first table, to the extent of 2,234, is occasioned by the contingents for Nice and Savoy being included in the latter and not in the first table.

Years.		1	2	3	4	5
To which Class Belongs.	In which Lots were Drawn.	Not Available from being in Prison, in Hospital, or Left at Home.	Men Struck Out, on account of Death, Mistaken Inscription, Exonerated, and Inability of Cantons to Supply.	Numbers Dispensed from Service.	Men who Joined the Land and Marine Forces in anticipation of being Drawn, or were Ordered to Join.	Grand Total of Columns 1, 2, 3, and 4.
1840	1841	2,187	138	6,748	70,927	80,000
'41	'42	2,005	257	7,412	70,326	80,000
'42	'43	4,947	1,201	7,921	65,931	80,000
'43	'44	5,309	1,265	7,088	66,388	80,000
'44	'45	4,036	644	7,240	68,080	80,000
'45	'46	3,609	536	7,759	68,096	80,000
'46	'47	3,456	486	8,851	67,207	80,000
'47	'41	4,009	349	8,737	66,905	80,000
'48	'49	27,273	848	10,377	41,502	80,000
'49	'50	5,082	1,144	7,959	65,815	80,000
1850	1851	4,394	884	7,219	67,503	80,000
'51	'52	3,789	602	7,675	67,934	80,000
'52	'53	3,321	393	7,725	68,561	80,000
'53	'54	5,310	2,551	16,330	115,809	140,000
'54	'55	4,140	2,640	22,728	110,492	140,000
'55	'56	3,944	25,141	21,146	89,769	140,000
'56	'57	4,305	16,557	10,835	68,303	100,000
'57	'58	3,760	18,744	11,158	66,338	100,000
'58	'59	3,062	41,623	15,460	79,855	140,000
'59	'60	31,983	24,968	12,585	32,698	102,234
1860	1861	34,229	21,400	12,082	32,289	100,000
'61	'62	37,432	19,540	11,090	31,938	100,000
'62	'63	37,428	21,033	8,618	32,921	100,000
'63	'64	39,134	21,993	11,076	28,697	100,000
Total 1840 to '63		278,144	224,937	255,769	1,543,384	2,302,234

I have now placed before you, as far as space and time admit, the information I have collected, in reference to the conscription in France. I think it is evident that the greater the number of soldiers obtained under the conscription, the higher the strength of the army may for a time be raised; but, at the same time, the heavier is the burthen on the population, and the more difficult it becomes to obtain the required numbers in after years. I may also quote a curious result of universal liability to service, mentioned by Baron Dalwigh, in the Darmstadt Chamber of Representatives, as reported in the "Times" of Saturday, 2nd February, 1867. It is, that "in a thousand German enterprises beyond the seas there are hardly more than two or three Prussians; their liability to serve in the army prevents them from leaving their own country until they are too old to be enterprising." Seeing the vast benefits that result to a country from the labours of the youths abroad, any cause which prevents their being thus employed, must carry with it, as regards the national prosperity, much to counterbalance the advantage obtained in increased military efficiency. Moreover the outlets available for the active and enterprising spirit of young men, in countries where no forced Military service exists, form probably the best security a State can have, for the maintenance of order and contentment at home.

On the MORTALITY of LONDON HOSPITALS: and INCIDENTALLY on the DEATHS in the PRISONS and PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS of the METROPOLIS. By WILLIAM A. GUY, M.B., F.R.S., F.R.C.P., Professor of Forensic Medicine, King's College, London; Physician to King's College Hospital, &c.

[Read before the Statistical Society, Tuesday, 16th April, 1867.]

At a meeting of the *Congrès de Bienfaisance*, held in London in the year 1862, I read a short paper "On the Rate of Mortality prevailing in the General Hospitals of London," based upon the returns made to the Council of this Society in the previous year.* The returns for five years are now published in the pages of our *Journal*; and I hope to be able to deduce from them some results which may prove instructive to medical men, and not uninteresting to the members of other professions.

The returns in question have supplied the materials for the following summary:—

1.—*Results of all the Returns from Thirteen General Hospitals for any, or all, of the Five Years 1861-65.*

	Admissions.	Deaths.	Deaths per 1,000.
Medical cases.....	52,819	7,657	145
Surgical „.....	78,142	5,074	65
All „.....	143,245	13,898	97
Males.....	57,696	6,074	105
Females.....	40,524	3,480	86
Males, medical cases.....	18,586	3,231	174
Females, „.....	17,747	2,003	113
Males, surgical cases.....	35,230	2,489	71
Females, „.....	19,536	1,198	61
Special wards.....	9,165	135	15
Medical cases, highest mortality in any hospital in any year.....			196
„ lowest „.....			104
Surgical cases, highest mortality in any hospital in any year.....			102
„ lowest „.....			53
All cases, highest mortality in any hospital in any year.....			151
„ lowest „.....			76
Mean residence, medical cases (36 returns).....			Days. 28
„ surgical „ („).....			32
„ all „ (43 „).....			30

* For an account of the circumstances under which these returns were set on foot, see *Journal of the Statistical Society*, vol. xxv (1862), p. 384.

2.—*Results of Complete Returns from Six General Hospitals (St. Bartholomew's, Guy's, London, St. George's, King's College, and St. Mary's) for the Five Years 1861-65.*

	Admissions.	Deaths.	Deaths per 1,000.
Medical cases	43,445	6,437	148
Surgical „	65,385	4,239	65
All „	108,830	10,676	98
Medical cases, highest mortality in the sum of the six hospitals in any year.....			160
„ lowest mortality in the sum of the six hospitals in any year.....			140
Surgical cases, highest mortality in the sum of the six hospitals in any year.....			69
„ lowest mortality in the sum of the six hospitals in any year.....			62
All cases, highest mortality in the sum of the six hospitals in any year			105
„ lowest mortality in the sum of the six hospitals in any year			95

3.—*Results of Complete Returns of Mean Residence in Five General Hospitals (St. Bartholomew's, Guy's, London, St. George's, and St. Mary's).*

	Days.
Medical cases, longest mean residence	36
„ shortest „	24
„ mean residence	30
Surgical cases, longest mean residence	50
„ shortest „	26
„ mean residence	34
All cases, longest mean residence	40
„ shortest „	26
„ mean residence	32

My object in the paper just referred to, was to show “the necessity of using great caution and circumspection when we compare one hospital with another hospital situate within the limits of the same capital city;” and “a like caution in comparing the hospitals of one country, or of one capital city, with those of another.” In aiming at this object, I established incidentally the little influence of size or site, and of large or small pecuniary resources, on the rate of mortality; and I showed that equal figures might result “from unequal and wholly dissimilar combinations of causes.” I also expressed my conviction that, within the limits “of the same capital city, the mortality of hospitals is mainly due

to causes which determine the nature and severity of the cases admitted within their walls.

I must dwell for a short time on these statements of fact and opinion.

As illustration of the *fact*, take the returns for 1861 from the three hospitals which border one great line of thoroughfare from east to west—London and St. George's at the two extremities, Charing Cross in the interval—the first two of large size and in open situations, the last comparatively small, and joined to neighbouring buildings: London Hospital largely supplied with surgical cases from the docks and river, the other two more sparingly supplied with this class of cases: London Hospital contrasting strongly with St. George's, and in a less degree with Charing Cross, in the character of the surrounding population. And yet, in 1861, the death-rate of the three hospitals, taken in order from east to west, is 84, 83, and 83 per 1,000! As a second illustration, take the two large, richly endowed hospitals of St. Bartholomew's and Guy's, and the two smaller unendowed hospitals, University and King's, with so many contrasts of site, structure, and arrangement, external and internal; and yet, after a necessary correction for special wards, a rate of mortality (for the same year, 1861), approximating as the numbers 110, 112, 113, 115 in the 1,000, for King's, Bartholomew's, Guy's, and University respectively!

As giving some countenance to the *opinion* just expressed, take again these last figures (ranging from 110 to 115 in the 1,000), as the death-rates of the four hospitals having the largest medical schools, and, therefore, the greatest motives and aids to the supply of severe cases, and compare them with the figures first named (ranging from 83 to 84 per 1,000), as belonging to a class of smaller medical schools; or, as more convincing still, take the death-rate of 80 per 1,000 prevailing, during the five years 1840-44, in the recently established, old, dilapidated King's College Hospital, compared with the greatly augmented rate of 109 per 1,000 for the five years 1857-61, in the new and spacious hospital built on the same site, opened out by the removal of some very offensive nuisances, with greatly improved nursing arrangements, and medical staff little changed; but with all the motives and aids to the multiplication of severe cases augmenting with the lapse of time.

From this brief reference to my paper of 1862, based on the figures of the previous year, I pass to the five years 1861-65, and inquire, first, whether the coincidence of equal, or nearly equal, figures with unequal and dissimilar conditions, displays itself also in the last four years of the series. The answer is in the affirmative: for, in 1862, Guy's and St. Mary's have the same death-rate of 96 in the 1,000, while Westminster and King's differ only as the

numbers 101 and 103; in 1863, Guy's has a death-rate of 97, St. Mary's of 98; in 1864, London and Westminster differ as the numbers 105 and 106; in 1865, the death-rates of Westminster and Guy's are as the numbers 92 and 94; lastly, on the average of the five years, London and St. George's present the same mortality of 88, St. Thomas's and St. Mary's of 103 per 1,000.

I now proceed to justify by facts the opinion I have just expressed, that *within the limits of the same capital city, the mortality of hospitals is mainly due to the causes which determine the nature and severity of the cases admitted.*

Now there is one cause of variation in the population of hospitals which is too obvious to be overlooked by any thoughtful person: I mean *the proportion of medical and surgical cases.* In the paper already referred to, I stated that, for 1861, the hospital death-rate which, for all cases, ranged from 60 to 112 per 1,000, and averaged 95, for medical cases ranged from 77 to 187, average 140; and, for surgical cases, from 48 to 85, average 63. With such a contrast between medical and surgical cases, we have only to suppose two hospitals, either through the natural selection due to their respective neighbouring populations, or through the more artificial preference of one class of patients to the other, supplied, the one with an excess of medical, the other of surgical, cases, in order to value at their true worth the figures which embody the gross mortality of the two.

I purposely make choice of an extreme case, by way of illustration; and take the death-rates of King's College and the Royal Free Hospitals for the four years, 1861, 1863, 1864, and 1865.

In these four years 5,708 patients were admitted into the wards of King's College Hospital (exclusive of the lying-in wards), and of these 3,145 were medical, and 2,563 surgical, cases; while 5,254 patients entered the wards of the Royal Free Hospital, of which 1,265 were medical, and 3,989 surgical. So that out of 1,000 patients in King's College Hospital, 550 would be medical cases; while of the like number in the Royal Free Hospital, only 240 would be medical cases. Now the rate of mortality among medical cases is, as I have just shown, more than twice as high as among surgical cases. In this particular case, 162 per 1,000 represents the medical death-rate at King's College Hospital, and 80 per 1,000 the surgical death-rate; while 141 per 1,000, and 49 per 1,000 represent the medical and surgical death-rates of the Royal Free Hospital. In the one the medical death-rate is more than twice, in the other not much less than three times, as great as the surgical. If now, on the strength of the higher death-rate of King's College Hospital, which is 125 per 1,000 for all cases, compared with the more moderate rate of 71 per 1,000 prevailing at the Royal Free Hospital,

it were rashly inferred that King's College Hospital was less healthy, or the patients less skilfully treated, or worse nursed, attention would have to be drawn, in the first place, to its very high proportion of medical cases; and the distribution of cases, medical and surgical, in the two hospitals would have to be equalised. This may be done by supposing for each hospital a population of 500 medical and 500 surgical cases, subject each to the ascertained medical and surgical death-rate. I make this corrective calculation, and find the following results:—

	Per 1,000.
King's College Hospital, gross death-rate	125
Royal Free " "	71
King's College, 500 medical and 500 surgical cases	121
Royal Free, " "	95

So that the disparity which was represented by 125—71 deaths, has shrunk to the more moderate dimensions of 121—95 deaths, or from 54 deaths to 26 deaths, being less than half the number.

I will take one other case in illustration. In the five years 1861-65, there were admitted into St. George's Hospital 18,887 cases, out of which number there were 1,656 deaths, or at the rate of 88 per 1,000. In the same five years 21,252 patients were admitted into the London Hospital, of whom 1,878 died, being in the same proportion of 88 per 1,000. Now, let us see how this equal death-rate fares when the medical and surgical cases are equally distributed (500 medical and 500 surgical). The medical death-rate of St. George's was 123 per 1,000, of the London 127 per 1,000; the surgical death-rate was 60 per 1,000 at St. George's, and 72 per 1,000 at the London. The death-rates, therefore, before and after correction stand as follows:—

	Per 1,000.
St. George's Hospital, gross death-rate	88
London " "	88
St. George's, 500 medical and 500 surgical cases	92
London " "	100

Another cause which must obviously influence the mortality of hospitals, by bringing about a greater or less severity in the cases admitted, is the *sex* of the patients. I may premise that, taking one hospital with another, the admissions of male patients are to those of females as about 6 to 4 (or 3 to 2), and the deaths as about 5 to 4. Now, I find that in the three years, 1863, 1864, and 1865, the Royal Free Hospital admitted 2,059 males and 2,018 females, or, very nearly the same number; while, in the same three years, the London Hospital admitted 8,700 males and only 4,219 females; the males,

therefore, being more than twice as numerous as the females. The death-rate, without distinction of sex, was, for the Royal Free 71 per 1,000, for the London Hospital 94 per 1,000. But, if we suppose each hospital to have admitted 500 males and 500 females, the death-rate becomes, for the Royal Free 70, for the London 91. This correction, therefore, makes a difference of 3 per 1,000. The interval is narrowed from 94—71 to 91—70.

I will take one more case of this class. St. George's Hospital, in the four years 1862-65, admitted 8,975 male, and 6,277 female, patients, being about 3 to 2; while the proportion for the London Hospital, for three years, was more than 2 to 1. The aggregate mortality for the London Hospital was 94, for St. George's 88; but for an equal population of 500 males and 500 females, the death-rate at London Hospital becomes 91, and at St. George's 86. Both figures are reduced, but the divergence which was represented by the figure 6 is now represented by the figure 5 (94—88 and 91—86).

A third cause which affects the death-rate of our general hospitals, by modifying the severity of the cases admitted, is the existence or non-existence of special wards, or the existence of special wards for patients more or less strongly contrasted and subject to different rates of mortality. Under this head I will compare the two great hospitals, St. Bartholomew's and Guy's, and for the four years 1861, 1863, 1864, and 1865. In the four years in question, the gross death-rate for Bartholomew's Hospital was 106, for Guy's 95; but after deducting the patients and deaths in their respective special wards, the figures become 121 and 115; a divergence in the one case of 11 per 1,000, in the other of only 6 per 1,000.

I have now illustrated by suitable examples the influence of the distribution of medical and surgical cases, of special wards, and of the varying proportion of males and females, on the gross mortality of our general hospitals; and I will conclude this part of my subject by a single illustration of the relative force of these three modifying agents. I take for this purpose the death-rates of St. Bartholomew's and Guy's Hospitals for the fatal year 1864.

In that year 5,543 patients admitted into St. Bartholomew's sustained a mortality of 617, and 4,989 admitted into Guy's Hospital a loss of 480. The death-rate in the one was 111 per 1,000, in the other 96 per 1,000. But while there were admitted into the special wards of St. Bartholomew's 848 patients, of whom 17 died, there were admitted into the special wards of Guy's 1,026, of whom only 12 died. If now we deduct these admissions into special wards with the corresponding deaths, we have for the general wards of St. Bartholomew's 4,695 admissions and 600 deaths; for the

general wards of Guy's 3,963 admissions and 468 deaths; the death-rate in the one hospital rising from 111 to 128 per 1,000, in the other from 96 to 118. Thus, in consequence of the larger number and lower mortality of cases admitted into the special wards of Guy's Hospital, the death-rates of the two hospitals approach more closely when the cases and deaths in the special wards are deducted.

We have next to inquire to what extent the death-rates of the two hospitals will be modified, if we assume 500 males and 500 females to have been admitted into each of them, and to have been subject to its own special rates of mortality. Now, in the year 1864, the 5,543 patients of St. Bartholomew's Hospital consisted of 3,184 males and 2,359 females, while the 4,989 patients of Guy's Hospital consisted of 3,009 males and 1,980 females. The deaths, in the one case, amounted to 398 males and 219 females; in the other to 316 males and 164 females. The death-rate for St. Bartholomew's was 125 for males and 93 for females; and for Guy's 105 for males and 83 for females: and a population of 500 males and 500 females would, therefore, suffer a mortality of 109 at Bartholomew's and 94 at Guy's. By this adjustment, then, the gross death-rate of St. Bartholomew's falls from 111 to 109 per 1,000; of Guy's from 96 to 94 per 1,000.

Our last inquiry relates to the modifying influence of medical and surgical cases. Now, in the year 1864, the 5,543 patients of St. Bartholomew's consisted of 2,043 medical, and 3,500 surgical, cases; while the 4,989 patients of Guy's Hospital consisted of 1,921 medical, and 3,068 surgical, patients. 401 medical patients and 216 surgical died at St. Bartholomew's; 290 medical, and 190 surgical, patients at Guy's. The death-rate of medical cases was 196 per 1,000 at St. Bartholomew's, and 151 per 1,000 at Guy's; the surgical death-rate 62 per 1,000 in both hospitals. If now we assume a like population of 500 medical, and 500 surgical, patients to have been admitted, in 1864, into both hospitals, the one (St. Bartholomew's) would have a death-rate of 129, the other (Guy's) a death-rate of 107 per 1,000. By this adjustment, then, the rate of mortality rises at St. Bartholomew's from 111 to 129 per 1,000; at Guy's from 96 to 107 per 1,000.

The figures of the original mortality of the two hospitals, and of their mortality as modified by abstraction of special wards, by equalisation of males and females, and of medical and surgical cases, are brought together in the following table.

TABLE I.

	Year 1864. Death-rate per 1,000.		
	St. Bartholomew's.	Guy's.	Difference.
Original figures	111	96	15
Same after abstraction of special wards	128	118	10
500 males and 500 females	109	94	15
500 medical and 500 surgical cases	129	107	22

The returns from the several hospitals (as published in our *Journal*), do not comprise any figures which would enable me to ascertain the modifying influence of age; but as this is likely to be considerable, I have had recourse to the books of King's College Hospital, and have abstracted the 1,500 cases which came first to hand, in the year 1864, as inmates of the general wards of the hospital. I have reduced them to the standard of 1,000, distinguished them as males and females, and divided them into two groups, as they were under or over 25 years of age. The results are given in the following table:—

TABLE II.

	Males.		Females.	
	25 and Under.	Above 25.	25 and Under.	Above 25.
Deaths	25	58	18	34
Recoveries, &c.....	197	294	191	183
Total admissions	222	352	209	217
Deaths per 1,000	113	165	86	157

The great disparity shown in this table between the death-rate of males under and over 25 years of age, and the still greater disparity in the case of females, shows that this element of age is also one that cannot be disregarded when we compare the mortality of one hospital with that of another.

There is another modifying cause affecting the death-rate of hospitals which may be illustrated by figures. I mean the proportion of free admissions to admissions by letter. The influence of these two modes of admission on the mortality of an hospital may be inferred from the statement that in King's College Hospital, during the years 1863-64, I found the death-rate among 250 recom-

mended patients to be 184 per 1,000, and among the same number of free patients, only 160 per 1,000. Both classes of patients were resident in London and its environs. There is still another cause which may be supposed to affect the death-rate of our hospitals, namely, the mean residence of the patients. But this is rather an index to the class of patients admitted, than a direct and influential cause of mortality. An hospital, for instance, which encourages trivial cases, and keeps its beds full, will have a short mean residence, a low death-rate, and a long list of patients, as necessary results; but the cause of the low mortality is the trivial character of the diseases treated, not the short stay of the patients in hospital. The encouragement of chronic cases of slight severity, would lead to a low death-rate and long mean residence; but here again, the low mortality would result from the nature of the cases, and not from the sojourn in hospital. On the other hand, the admission of cases of extreme severity would entail a high death-rate, with short mean residence, and many patients. But if the cases were somewhat less severe, then the quick death of the few that must die would be set against the slow recovery and lingering convalescence of the larger number that get well, and the result might be a high death-rate and long mean residence. Again, surgical cases, which entail a comparatively low rate of mortality, may necessitate a longer mean residence in hospital. There is, therefore, no such direct relation of cause and effect between residence and death-rate as there has been shown to be between age, sex, and the proportion of medical and surgical cases and the rate of mortality. These natural suggestions are borne out by the numerical returns. The average of surgical mean residences is 34 days; of medical 30. And while St. Bartholomew's and Guy's Hospitals, with surgical death-rates of 61 and 60 respectively, have minimum mean residences for that class of cases of 28 and 31 days; the Royal Free Hospital, with a surgical death-rate of 49, has a mean residence of 21 days. So also with the medical cases. St. Bartholomew's and Guy's Hospitals, with medical death-rates of 182 and 150, have minimum mean residences of 28 and 33 days; while the Royal Free Hospital, with a death-rate of 141, has for its minimum residence 22 days. I may add that of the five hospitals, St. Bartholomew's, Guy's, London, St. George's, and St. Mary's, which have furnished complete returns for five years, and show a higher rate of mortality, general and surgical, than the Royal Free Hospital; none show a lower mean residence than 24 days for medical, 26 for surgical, and 26 for all cases, while the Royal Free Hospital, which has given returns for four years, has a minimum residence for medical cases of 22, for surgical cases of 21, and for all cases of 22 days. The general rule, then, would seem to be, that severe cases and long

mean residences, less severe cases and short mean residences, go together. It is also probable that wealthy endowed hospitals would keep their patients somewhat longer than hospitals supported with difficulty by voluntary contributions; and that the mean residence will also tend to vary inversely as the demands for admission and directly as the number of beds habitually vacant.

Hitherto I have been assuming that, in comparing one hospital with another, the death-rates are those of the same year; but it is well known that, in the absence of figures relating to the same year, it is not an unusual procedure to compare those of different years and to draw inferences from them. In order to show the errors into which such a comparison of different years with each other might lead, and also to supply the necessary data for some other inquiries bearing on the causes of the mortality of hospitals, I have prepared three tables, of which the first displays the general mortality of London for the five years 1861-65, the second the rate of mortality in the medical wards, and the third the rate in the surgical wards. No deduction is made in either of these tables for special wards.

TABLE III.—*General Mortality for the Five Years 1861-65.*

Hospitals.	Deaths per 1,000.					Maxi- mun.	Mini- mun.	Mean.	Range.	Ditto per Cent.*
	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.					
1. St. Bartholomew's	107	112	102	111	102	112	102	107	10	9
2. Guy's	94	96	97	96	93	97	93	95	4	4
3. St. Thomas's	98	97	103	125	101	125	97	103	28	22
4. London.....	84	76	87	105	89	105	76	88	29	28
5. St. George's.....	87	85	83	86	97	97	83	88	14	14
6. Westminster	98	103	91	106	92	106	91	98	15	14
7. King's College.....	107	101	123	151	126	151	101	120	50	33
8. St. Mary's	103	96	98	112	106	112	96	103	16	14
9. Royal Free	67	73	64	74	77	77	64	71	13	17
10. Charing Cross (3 years)	83	87	77	—	—	87	77	82	10	11
11. Metropolitan Free (4 } years)	69	56	69	—	56	69	56	63	13	19
12. Great Northern (2 yrs.)	82	45	—	—	—	82	45	66	37	45

Note.—In order to facilitate the study of this and the following tables, the maxima and minima in the columns of the years, are printed in a characteristic type.

* The percentage of this column is that of the range, or difference between the highest and lowest death-rates of the five years, compared with the maximum death-rate.

TABLE IV.—Rate of Mortality in Medical Cases, 1861-65.

Hospitals.	Deaths per 1,000.					Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.	Mean.	Range.	Ditto per Cent.
	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.					
St. Bartholomew's	187	191	153	196	180	196	153	182	43	22
Guy's	143	146	155	151	155	155	143	150	12	8
St. Thomas's	129	125	131	156	127	156	125	132	31	20
London.....	128	104	124	145	139	145	104	127	41	28
St. George's.....	116	117	118	124	138	138	116	123	22	16
King's College.....	145	135	153	196	160	196	135	157	61	31
St. Mary's	122	105	129	156	165	165	105	134	60	36
Royal Free (4 years)	115	—	126	154	165	165	115	141	50	30
Charing Cross (3 years)	117	112	105	—	—	117	105	111	12	10
Metropolitan Free (4 } years)	79	71	122	—	97	122	71	96	51	42

TABLE V.—Rate of Mortality in Surgical Cases, 1861-65.

Hospitals.	Deaths per 1,000.					Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.	Mean.	Range.	Ditto per Cent.
	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.					
St. Bartholomew's	56	63	70	62	55	70	55	61	15	21
Guy's	56	61	62	62	58	62	56	60	6	10
St. Thomas's	63	75	77	102	82	102	63	77	39	38
London.....	65	64	72	90	70	90	64	72	26	29
St. George's	62	65	55	53	64	65	53	60	12	19
King's College.....	80	58	81	93	68	93	58	75	35	38
St. Mary's	81	85	67	76	68	85	67	75	18	21
Royal Free (4 years)	52	—	45	47	51	52	45	49	7	13
Charing Cross (3 years)	53	68	54	—	—	68	53	58	15	22
Metropolitan Free (4 } years)	57	46	90	—	12*	90	46	66	44	49

* Obviously exceptional.

The first of these three tables (Table III) contains figures which fully illustrate the extent of the error that might arise from comparing different years. In the year 1861, St. Thomas's and Westminster Hospitals had the same rate of mortality (98 per 1,000); but if the death-rate of Westminster Hospital in 1861 were compared with the death-rate of St. Thomas's in 1864, the one would be 98 the other 125 per 1,000. In the same year, St. Bartholomew's and King's College Hospitals had the same death-rate of 107 per 1,000; but if the death-rate of King's College Hospital in 1864 were compared with that of St. Bartholomew's in 1861 the respective death-rates would be 151 and 107. Lastly, in 1865, the death-rates for St. Thomas's and St. Bartholomew's being 101 and 102 respectively, St. Bartholomew's would show a rate of 112 in 1862,

and St. Thomas's of 125 in 1864. It will be seen that, in the second case (that of St. Bartholomew's and King's College Hospitals), it makes a difference of little less than 50 per cent., if, instead of comparing the death-rates of the same year, 1861, we compare St. Bartholomew's in 1861 with King's College in 1864.

An examination of Tables III, IV, and V reveals one or two facts worthy of notice. In the first place, it is obvious that the death-rate is subject, in the same hospital, to considerable fluctuations, even in short terms of years. In the second place, it is evident that the amount of fluctuation varies greatly in different hospitals, both in medical and in surgical cases. In the third place, the highest and lowest death-rates seem to occur in very large proportion in two years, 1864 and 1862 respectively. These facts are patent on the very face of the tables.

The highest *general* death-rate occurs in five hospitals out of the seven which have supplied returns for every year of the quinquennial period (St. Thomas's, London, Westminster, King's College, and St. Mary's) in the year 1864; in another (St. George's) in the following year 1865; in Guy's in 1863; while in St. Bartholomew's, the deaths fall short by one only of the maximum, which occurs exceptionally in 1862. The highest *medical* death-rate occurs also in four hospitals in the same year, 1864—the hospitals being St. Bartholomew's, St. Thomas's, London, and King's College; in two hospitals (St. George's and St. Mary's) it occurs in the following year, 1865; in one (Guy's) in the same year as well as in the previous year, 1863. The highest *surgical* death-rate falls also in four hospitals (Guy's, St. Thomas's, London, and King's College) in the year 1864; in one (St. Bartholomew's) it occurs in the previous year, 1863; in two (St. George's and St. Mary's) in the year 1862. In the case of Guy's Hospital the same figure occurs in 1863 and 1864. On the other hand, the lowest general death-rates of four of the five hospitals which showed a maximum in 1864 (St. Thomas's, London, King's College, and St. Mary's), occur in one year, 1862; and also the lowest medical death-rates. The lowest surgical death-rate falls in two instances in 1861, in two instances in 1862, and in one instance in each of the years 1863, 1864, and 1865. It may be stated, then, in general terms, that the maxima and minima of the general, medical, and surgical death-rates fall, in the great number of instances, in the same years, the minimum surgical death-rate being the single exception to the rule.

Two interesting questions now arise:—do these extreme death-rates coincide with the highest and lowest number of deaths in other public institutions in London, and in the districts in which the hospitals are situate; and, can the excessive mortality of our hospitals in certain years be explained in part by the prevalence

of certain fatal diseases among the general population of the metropolis?

I prepare for the solution of these questions by constructing the following tables, showing the deaths in public institutions, in districts, and by certain fatal maladies.

TABLE VI.—Deaths in Public Institutions, 1861-65.

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.	Mean.	Range.	Ditto per Cent.
1. Prisons.....	46	53	64	125	99	125	46	75	79	63
2. Workhouses	5,757	6,401	6,187	7,055	6,715	7,055	5,757	6,423	1,298	18
3. Military and naval asylums... }	251	307	289	315	278	315	251	288	64	20
4. Hospitals and asylums for foreigners	58	74	61	82	71	82	58	69	24	29
5. General hospitals	3,234	3,167	3,169	3,558	3,354	3,558	3,167	3,296	391	11
6. Hospitals for special diseases }	335	690	827	982	1,002	1,002	335	767	667	66
7. Military and naval hospitals }	223	236	203	215	176	236	176	210	60	25
8. Lunatic asylums	276	310	264	327	353	353	264	306	89	25
9. Lying-in } women	38	35	11	24	26	38	11	27	27	71
hospitals } children	58	40	37	48	42	58	37	45	21	36

TABLE VII.—Deaths in Metropolitan Districts, 1861-65.

	Deaths per 10,000.					Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.	Mean.	Range.	Ditto per Cent.
	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.					
West	224	223	232	249	230	249	223	232	26	10
South	228	227	233	254	232	254	227	235	27	10
North	223	220	238	254	245	254	220	236	34	13
Central	250	258	265	293	270	293	250	267	43	15
East	240	260	265	290	264	290	240	264	50	17
London	232	236	245	265	246	265	232	245	33	13
England [000's omitted]	435,	437,	474,	496,	491,	496,	435,	455,	61,	12,

TABLE VIII.—Deaths by Prevalent Diseases and Classes of Disease, 1861-65.

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.	Mean.	Range.	Ditto per Cent.
1. Bronchitis	6,465	5,925	6,049	8,666	7,265	8,666	5,925	6,874	2,741	32
2. Respiratory organs	11,735	11,190	11,499	15,201	12,545	15,201	11,190	12,434	4,011	26
3. Phthisis.....	7,716	7,749	7,991	8,559	8,710	8,710	7,716	8,145	994	11
4. Tubercular diseases	10,824	10,574	11,097	11,735	11,932	11,932	10,574	11,232	1,358	11
5. Diseases of organs of circulation ... }	2,850	2,993	3,116	3,536	3,456	3,536	2,850	3,190	686	19
6. Zymotic diseases	15,710	17,869	21,805	20,051	18,058	21,805	15,710	18,699	6,095	28

Hospitals (medical cases), maximum in 1864 in 4 out of 7.
" " minimum in '62 in 4 " 7.

On comparing the figures in these three tables with those in Tables III, IV, and V, it will be seen that the highest and lowest rates of mortality in the London hospitals bear some relation to the rates in the several London districts, and in the public institutions of the metropolis; as well as to certain diseases and groups of disease to which the greatest number of deaths is attributed in the reports of the Registrar-General. I shall offer a few observations on each of these points under the three heads of districts, public institutions, and diseases.

1. *Districts*.—It will be observed (Table VII) that the highest death-rate in each of the London districts occurs in the year 1864, and the lowest in 1862, or the year preceding. Also (Table III), that in the same year, 1864, the highest death-rate occurs in five hospitals out of nine; and the lowest in the same year, 1862, or the year following, in eight out of nine. The minimum rate falls in 1862, in three districts out of five, and in four hospitals out of nine. But a more direct comparison of hospital with district shows that the hospitals are affected by the rate of mortality occurring in the districts in which they are situate. At St. Mary's Hospital, the highest and lowest death-rates occur in the same years as in the western district; at St. George's Hospital in the year following; while at the Westminster Hospital the highest rate coincides with that of the district, though the lowest takes place in the year following. St. Thomas's Hospital, too, in the south district, has its maximum and minimum death-rates in the same years in which they occur in the district itself, though Guy's Hospital, in the same district, shows a maximum in 1863, and a minimum in 1865. The Royal Free Hospital, in the north district, has its greatest and least death-rates in the year following those of the district itself. The mortality of King's College Hospital follows the rule of the central district as to its maximum rate, while its minimum occurs in the year following the minimum for the district. St. Bartholomew's, however, does not conform to the rule of the district in either extreme. Lastly, the London Hospital, in the east district, had its greatest death-rate in the year of the maximum for the district, and its least death-rate in the year after.

It will be observed that I have given, in each of the tables now under consideration, columns showing the range, or difference between the highest and lowest death-rates, and the percentage of the same in relation to the maximum. Some interesting results follow from an examination and comparison of these figures. Some hospitals, such as Guy's, show a remarkable freedom from fluctuation; while others, such as the London and King's College, display very wide intervals between their extreme death-rates. Thus, the general medical and surgical death-rates, which, in the case of Guy's

Hospital, fluctuate as the numbers 4, 8, and 10, in the case of the London Hospital fluctuate as the figures 28, 28, and 29, and of King's College Hospital as 33, 31, and 38. Now, in this respect also, there is a noteworthy coincidence between hospital and district. Thus Guy's Hospital, which exhibits the curiously low ranges of 4, 8, and 10 per cent., is situate in the south district, which shares with the west the lowest district-fluctuation, namely 10 per cent. St. Thomas's Hospital, which displays a higher rate, is exceptionally circumstanced. The three western hospitals have the higher rate of fluctuation of 14 per cent., the western district, as just stated, having the low rate of 10 per cent. The Royal Free Hospital, with the moderate range of 17 per cent., is in the north district, which has the next higher range of 13 per cent. In the central district, which has the still higher range of 15 per cent., King's College Hospital displays the high range of 33 per cent., though St. Bartholomew's shows much greater steadiness by a range of 9 per cent. Lastly, the east district, which contains the London Hospital, has its high range of 17 per cent., while the hospital itself, with its range of 28 per cent., falls short only of the high fluctuation of King's College Hospital.

It appears, then, that between the highest and lowest death-rates of hospital and district, as between their respective rates of fluctuation, there is such an amount of coincidence as fully justifies the assertion that one element in the mortality of our hospitals is the population by which they are surrounded.

This coincidence between the death-rates of our hospitals and those of the districts surrounding or adjacent, would doubtless be more exact if each hospital drew its supply of patients solely, or chiefly from its own neighbourhood. But this is very far from being the case, and it is quite possible that the proportion which patients from the intermediate neighbourhood bear to those from places more remote, may vary so much in different hospitals as to affect the rate of mortality. That the influence which the local sources of supply exert on the death-rate is very considerable, may be inferred from the following statement of the rates of mortality in the year 1864 for four groups of districts. The figures were obtained by abstracting for each group the first hundred cases and their results, cases brought in dead being omitted :—

	Death-rate per 1,000.
1. Adjacent districts	140
2. Districts more remote	130
3. Environs of London.....	110
4. Country	30

These figures render it probable that, in the case of the London hospitals, the worst cases are brought in from the immediate neigh-

bourhood, and cases of less severity from parts more remote, while the cases sent from the country have the low death-rate that prevails in some county hospitals which draw their supply of patients from towns of small size, or from the rural districts.*

2. *Public Institutions.*—The nine groups of public institutions (Table VI) display such a general resemblance to our hospitals as to confirm the inferences drawn from the comparison just made of hospital with district. Of the group of general hospitals, it will suffice to observe, that the returns of the aggregate number of deaths show the maxima and minima to fall, as might be expected, in the years 1864 and 1862. Of the eight groups that remain, four have their maximum of deaths in the fatal year 1864, and their minimum in 1861. In two other groups (hospitals for special diseases and lunatic asylums) the maximum is postponed to 1865. The remaining groups follow exceptional orders of their own, perhaps accounted for, in part, in the case of the Lying-in Hospital, by the smallness of the figures.

There is one group of figures in this table (I mean that which exhibits the deaths in the London prisons) which is so remarkable that I propose to offer a few observations upon it in an appendix.

3. *Diseases.*—In Table VIII I have brought together the six diseases and classes of disease which give rise to the greater number of deaths among the adult population, and form the fund out of which the hospitals draw their chief supply of medical cases. The figures represent the number of deaths from those diseases and classes of disease occurring in the metropolis in the five years 1861-65. Now, if we bear in mind the fact that, in the case of our hospitals and of the districts in which they are situate, the highest death-rate, as a broad general rule, occurs in the year 1864, and the lowest in 1862, we shall naturally expect to find, in this table, some disease, or group of diseases, or possibly more than one, which inflicts its greatest and least loss on the community in those same years. Such a disease, and such a group of diseases, is bronchitis, and diseases of the organs of respiration, of which the maxima and minima also occur in the years 1864 and 1862. Diseases of the organs of circulation also exhibit their maximum in 1864, but their minimum in 1861; and these diseases are closely allied to those of the organs of respiration. Tubercular diseases, which have their minimum in 1862, but their maximum in 1865, and phthisis, the principal member of this group, of which the maximum mortality falls one year later, and the minimum one year earlier than the extremes in bronchitis, are sure to play an important part in the

* The returns sent in to the Council from a few provincial hospitals, exhibit for county hospitals a death-rate ranging from 21 to 60 per 1,000, and, for manufacturing towns, 57 to 105 per 1,000.

mortality of hospitals. But zymotic diseases, which form the largest of the six classes contained in the table, have their maximum in 1863, and their minimum in 1861.

If we compare the deaths in public institutions (Table VI) with the deaths by prevalent diseases (Table VIII), we discover some suggestive coincidences. The deaths in special hospitals, which comprise hospitals for phthisis and diseases of the chest, coincide as to maxima and minima with the deaths from phthisis, and deaths in workhouses, military and naval asylums, and hospitals and asylums for foreigners, with diseases of the organs of circulation; with which class of maladies the deaths among the much younger class of prisoners also coincides.

If, again, we refer to Table IV, which exhibits the mortality of our hospitals from medical cases, we find the extremes for St. Thomas's, London, and King's College Hospitals coinciding with the deaths from bronchitis and diseases of the lungs; those of St. George's with the deaths from phthisis; those of St. Mary's with the deaths from tubercular diseases; those of Guy's (which shows the same maximum in 1863 and 1865) either with the deaths from zymotic diseases or with those from phthisis.

It is not consistent with the limited objects of this paper to trace the deaths in our London hospitals to their special causes; but I think there are good grounds for the opinion that pulmonary consumption and bronchitis contribute very largely to the excessive mortality in very fatal years, these diseases being at the same time rife in other public institutions and among the general public, and being chiefly due to the low temperature of the winter months, by which the deaths of persons suffering from consumption are hastened, and fatal bronchitis, both in healthy and unhealthy persons, directly induced. To support this statement it will suffice to give the figures extracted from the records of two hospitals—St. Bartholomew's and King's College. At the first of these hospitals, the mortality among medical cases was at a minimum in 1863, at a maximum in 1864; and in the first of these years phthisis and bronchitis proved fatal to 64 and 28 patients, in the second to 80 and 49. At King's College Hospital, the minimum death-rate took place in 1862, and the maximum in 1864. In the first of these years phthisis destroyed 8 patients, in the second 22, and bronchitis 11 and 16 in the two years respectively. The very high death-rate at King's College Hospital for 1864, was also in part accounted for by an increase in deaths by continued fever from 7 to 15, and by erysipelas and pyæmia from 11 to 16. It is also well worthy of observation, as showing the occasional influence on hospital mortality of transitory external causes, that the deaths following accidents or deeds of violence, which were 9 in 1862, rose to 26 in 1864. This nearly

three-fold increase is believed to have been mainly brought about by the works for the Thames Embankment.

Having now, by a direct appeal to figures, justified the opinion expressed at the beginning of this paper, that “within the limits” of the same capital city, the mortality of hospitals is mainly due “to the causes which determine the nature and severity of the cases admitted within their walls;” and having also given striking illustrations of the modifying influence of some of those causes, I proceed to gather up into one summary the several causes in question, whether demonstrated in this paper, or obvious on consideration, or noticed by earlier writers;* and to arrange them in order under the distinct heads of—1, causes affecting the applicants for admission; 2, causes influencing the selection of cases; and, 3, causes determining the fate of patients actually admitted.

1. *Causes Affecting the Applicants for Admission.*—Ages, sexes, and occupations of the surrounding and adjacent population. Density of the population, and relation of the same to the size of the hospital. Greater or less proximity of other hospitals and dispensaries. More or less easy access from the rural districts. General repute of the hospital. Neighbourhood of large public or private works, temporary or permanent, as causing an excess of surgical cases. Weather and epidemic constitution of the year, and consequent more or less healthy state of the population.

2. *Causes Influencing the Selection of Cases.*—The proportion of cases admitted with and without the recommendation of governors and subscribers. The admission of patients at all times, or only on certain days and at certain hours: by the medical staff or by the managing committee. The more or less rigid exclusion, by the rules of the hospital, of chronic cases, such as consumption and insanity, and of infectious cases, such as fever and small-pox. The existence or non-existence of special wards, and the character of patients admitted to the same. The proportion of medical and surgical wards or beds, and of wards or beds for males and females. The number of out-patients, as supplying cases that ought to be admitted into the wards. The existence, or otherwise, of a medical school, as supplying a motive to the reception of

* Under this head I desire to call special attention to an excellent paper published by Dr. T. B. Peacock, in the “London Journal of Medicine,” No. XLI (May, 1852), p. 431, under the title of “Vital Statistics of the Royal Free Hospital.” In this paper the fluctuation in the death-rate from year to year, the influence of age and sex, the relation of the accommodation in the hospital to the needs of the adjacent districts, the mode of admission and the rules of selection of cases, the respective numbers of medical and surgical cases, the length of residence and more or less prompt discharge of chronic cases, are specified as causes effecting the rate of mortality, and more or less deserving of consideration. Some of these causes are illustrated by appropriate numerical comparisons.

instructive and severe cases. The age of the hospital as affecting the number of its supporters, and of the school as determining the extent of its professional connections. The reputation of one or more members of the surgical staff as skilful operators, or of one or more members of the medical staff for the treatment of diseases of a severe and fatal character.

3. The rules and practice of the hospital in respect of the retention of chronic cases. The sanitary arrangements of the hospital. The nursing arrangements. The skill of the hospital staff.

We have here a score at least of well defined causes, or small groups of causes, of which nearly one-half have been shown, by an appeal to figures, to have a decided influence on the death-rate of our hospitals. And, if exception could be taken to any of them, it would probably be to those two in the third group, to which uninformed persons are apt to attach the greatest importance—sanitary arrangements and professional skill. It is true that when we are comparing the rate of mortality of the London hospitals with that of some few of our provincial hospitals, or with some hospitals in other countries, we may be justified in attaching great importance to sanitary arrangements, and, in the case especially of some other countries, to professional skill. But when we limit ourselves to London hospitals, and compare their rates of mortality, we are dealing with institutions which, in all probability, have carried their sanitary arrangements to that point of excellence at which the issue of cases ceases to depend upon, or to be materially influenced by them; and it would be no less invidious than unjust to attribute the differing death-rates of our hospitals, in an appreciable degree, to any difference in the aggregate skill and ability of their professional staff, chosen, as it is, from among those members of the profession who have already given proofs of sound training, ability, and skill in practice. Even in the case of the greatest contrast which two hospital staffs are likely to offer, to wit, a difference of age, the experience and caution of the older physician would be set off against the more recent education and bolder practice of the younger; while the older surgeon, conscious of the drawbacks of age, would cease to court the more hazardous class of operations, and, gradually losing his reputation for quickness of eye and steadiness of hand, would come to deal with a class of cases subject to a lower rate of mortality. So that it is quite conceivable that the diminished skill and efficiency of a hospital staff might lessen rather than increase the rate of mortality; and further, that a low death-rate in an established hospital in such a capital as London, so far from redounding to the credit of its staff, would furnish the strongest reason to believe that they, or the governing body, encouraged the admission of the less serious class of cases,

and that the public had become aware of the fact, and acted accordingly. On the other hand, a high rate of mortality occurring in a London hospital, would afford a presumption that the institution was encouraging by its rules and practice the admission of medical cases of great severity, and surgical cases requiring difficult and hazardous operations.

If this communication had not already occupied more space than I at first expected; if the subject had not grown so much under my hands, I should have offered to the members of the Society who are not medical men, some general observations on the many causes that contribute to bring about the numerical results with which the statist has to deal. I should like to have shown that the prevalence of pauperism and crime, the proportion of the instructed and uninstructed, the prices of commodities, and many other conditions admitting of numerical expression, like the mortality of hospitals, are the results of many causes acting together in every possible combination and permutation of intensity; that this consideration ought to inspire us with caution in comparing one district or country with another, and lead us to view with misgiving, if not with distrust, those explanations which commend themselves to the uninstructed by the single merit of simplicity.

APPENDIX.

Mortality in the London Prisons.

I reserved this subject for special consideration on account of the very remarkable increase which took place in the number of deaths in the London prisons in the year 1864. The figures in Table VI show that the deaths in this fatal year were nearly twice as numerous as in the year preceding; and that, with the exception of the small group of women in lying-in hospitals, there is no other instance of so considerable an increase. Nor do the figures in any other table display a like phenomenon.

It is also observable that the percentage difference between the highest and lowest numbers is unusually large, being for prisons 63, for hospitals for special diseases 66, and for lying-in women in hospital 71. The highest figures for any general hospitals are, for all cases 33, for medical cases 36, and for surgical cases 38 per cent., while the highest for any London district is 17, and for any disease, or group of diseases, 32 per cent. So that there is a greater proportional difference between the lowest and highest mortality of prisoners in the five years 1861-65, than between the lowest and highest mortality of any hospital, district, or group of public institutions, except hospitals for special diseases, and for lying-in women.

Before proceeding further with this inquiry, I will show by figures taken from successive "summaries of weekly returns" issued by the Registrar-General, what has been the annual mortality in London prisons since the year 1850. The figures for the seventeen years from 1850 to 1866 inclusive, are as follows:—

(Cholera.)										(Cholera.)						
1850.	'51.	'52.	'53.	1854.	'55.	'56.	'57.	'58.	1859.	'60.	'61.	'62.	'63.	1864.	'65.	1866.
68,	70,	105,	106,	155,	71,	81,	71,	57,	40,	41,	46,	53,	64,	125,	99,	95.

From these figures it appears that no such sudden increase in the number of deaths as took place in 1864 has occurred in the long period of seventeen years; for from 1850 to 1854, when the high figure, 155, was attained, the increase was more gradual, and did not, in any one year, approach the double of the year preceding. The interval from 1859 to 1864, resembles that from 1850 to 1854 in displaying a progressive increase in the number of deaths, but while in the year 1855 the deaths fell below the half of the year previous, they remained at a high level in the years 1865 and 1866.

The facts, then, which deserve attention in respect of the deaths in our London prisons, are the progressive increase in their number from the low figure of 40 in 1859, to the higher figure of 64 in 1863, the sudden increase to 125 deaths in 1864, and their continuing at the high levels of 99 and 95 respectively in 1865 and 1866.

The question now arises, are there any such coincidences between these figures which represent the deaths in our London prisons, and those which exhibit the deaths in other public institutions in

London, as may enable us to infer the cause or causes of this excessive mortality?

In answering this question, it will be necessary to restrict ourselves to the five years 1861-65, to which all the tables of this paper refer, especially as the exceptional cholera year, 1866, would introduce a foreign element hostile to a just comparison. Now, on referring to Table VI, it will be seen that there are three other groups of institutions (workhouses, military and naval asylums, and hospitals and asylums for foreigners) which coincide with London prisons in displaying a minimum mortality in 1861 and a maximum in 1864, as well as an increase, more or less considerable, in the deaths this last year over those of 1863. These institutions, it will be observed, are either wholly devoted to the reception of aged persons, or they have a population containing this class of people in large proportion. Hence, if we may assume, as I think we can, that these numerical coincidences are not accidental, we must look for an explanation of the high prison mortality of 1864 to some cause or causes which would affect alike the aged inmates of the three groups of institutions, and the young adults of our prison population. Now, the only causes of mortality which would be likely to fulfil this condition, are diseases of the respiratory organs, taking the shape of pulmonary consumption in prisoners, and of bronchitis in the aged inmates of our asylums;—diseases which have been already shown to exert a marked influence on the mortality of our hospitals. These diseases, as will be seen by referring to Table VIII, are at their maximum mortality in 1864, and at a very high figure in the year following; in which points they resemble the mortality among prisoners and the inmates of asylums; but the minimum is seen to occur one year later, and in this they differ. In the case of pulmonary consumption, the minimum mortality falls in the year 1861 with the minimum for prisons, but the maximum is postponed till 1865. But the increase of deaths from consumption in 1864 is very considerable. Diseases of the organs of circulation conform, both in maximum and minimum, to the rule of mortality in prisons and asylums, and though they are comparatively small in number, they probably contribute much to the deaths among the aged, and something to the deaths among prisoners.

It is obvious, then, both from what has been said in the body of this paper, and from the comparisons just instituted, that between the highest and lowest mortality of our London prisons, and the highest and lowest mortality occasioned by diseases of the organs of respiration and circulation, there is such a degree of coincidence as will justify further inquiry; and as diseases of the chest are known to prevail during the last months of one year and the first of the following, additional information will probably be obtained if we group the first and last two years of the quinquennial period in pairs, leaving out the central year, 1863, as one that very rarely presents, in any of the tables, either a maximum or a minimum death-rate. The following table presents, for districts, public institutions and prevalent diseases, the deaths for the two years 1861-62, in contrast with those for 1864-65; together with the excess of the

second over the first, and the proportion per cent. which this excess bears to the larger number. Some of the figures in this table are not necessary to the solution of the question I am now discussing, but they may be useful as presenting a complete view of the deaths in public institutions and their relations to the general mortality of London.

	Deaths per 10,000.			Excess per Cent.
	1861-62.	1864-65.	Excess.	
<i>Districts—</i>				
West	447	479	32	7
South	455	486	31	6
North	443	499	56	11
Central	508	563	55	10
East	500	554	54	10
London	468	511	43	8
England [000's omitted].....	872,	987,	115,	12
	Number of Deaths.			
<i>Public Institutions—</i>				
1. Prisons	99	224	125	56
2. Workhouses	12,158	13,770	1,612	12
3. Military and naval asylums	558	593	35	6
4. Hospitals and asylums for } foreigners	132	153	21	14
5. General hospitals	6,401	6,912	511	7
6. Hospitals for special diseases.....	1,025	1,984	959	48
7. Hospitals for consumption and } diseases of the chest*	310	392	82	21
8. Lunatic asylums	586	680	94	14
<i>Diseases and Classes of Disease—</i>				
Bronchitis	12,390	15,931	3,541	22
Respiratory organs	22,925	27,746	4,821	17
Phthisis.....	15,465	17,269	1,804	10
Tubercular diseases	21,398	23,667	2,269	9
Diseases of the organs of circulation	5,843	6,992	1,149	16
Zymotic diseases	33,579	38,109	4,530	12

* This group of public institutions is not to be found in Table VIII.

Note.—Military and naval hospitals and hospitals for lying-in women are omitted, as not conforming to the rule.

This table, while it confirms the conclusions arrived at in the body of this paper by showing that there is a certain relation between the death-rate in the districts of London, London itself, and the kingdom at large, the public institutions of the metropolis, and the most prevalent diseases, brings out into strong relief the great fluctuation in the mortality of our prisons, and connects it with similar fluctuation in hospitals for special diseases, also, in a less degree, with the hospitals for consumption and diseases of the chest, with the disease bronchitis, and with the two leading groups of disease—affections of the lungs and of the organs of circulation.

These facts, then, may be taken to be sufficiently established:—

1. That there is a very great difference between the highest and lowest number of deaths in the London prisons, whether we compare 1861 with 1864, or 1861-62 with 1864-65.

2. That no such sudden increase in the number of deaths as occurred in London prisons in 1864, took place in those institutions in the seventeen years 1850 to 1866, though the deaths recorded in the cholera year, 1854, were more numerous.

3. That the high prison mortality of 1864 was the climax of an unbroken increase in the number of deaths from the year 1859, when they were at their minimum.

4. That the number of deaths in the years 1865 and 1866, though less than in 1864, were still maintained at a high level.

5. That the figures contained in Tables VI and VIII, and in the table just given, justify the opinion that the sudden increase of deaths in 1864, and the large death-rates of 1865-66, may be chiefly due to the prevalence of one or more diseases of the lungs.

6. That as in the case of hospitals and asylums for the aged, the disease of the lungs which occasions the high mortality of certain years, is most probably bronchitis, so in the case of the younger population of prisons, is pulmonary consumption the most probable cause of the excess.

If this opinion be well founded, it ought to be possible to prove—

1. That, in seasons of unusual severity, deaths from pulmonary consumption undergo a sudden and marked increase; 2, that the year 1864, and, in a less degree, the years following, were seasons of exceptional severity; and 3, that pulmonary consumption prevails among prisoners to such an extent, and with such considerable fluctuations, as to explain, at least in part, such differences as those which mark the years 1863 and 1864.

1. That no doubt may exist as to the influence of seasons of unusual severity in increasing the deaths by consumption and other diseases of the lungs, I will adduce certain conclusive numerical statements of the Registrar-General. Between ten cold and ten warm days in the months of November and December, 1856, there was a difference of about 20° Fahr., and the deaths from the diseases in question increased as follows:—

	Ten Warm Days.	Ten Cold Days.	Percentage Increase of Deaths.
Pulmonary consumption	163	232	42
Bronchitis and other diseases of the lungs	394	502	27

2. The unusual severity of the winters of the last three years, and its relation to the increased mortality, are clearly shown by the following extracts from the Registrar-General's summaries of the weekly returns for the years 1864, 1865, and 1866. Of the first of these years the Registrar-General, writing in 1865, says, "The death-rate was not so high as it was last year in any of the preceding twenty-four years, except 1847, the influenza year," "and 1849 and 1854, the two cholera years." "The mean temperature of the air was below the average of twenty-three years in seven

“ months out of the twelve.” The mean temperature for the whole year, 1863, was 50°·3, and for 1864, 48°·5. “Bronchitis caused 8,666 deaths against 6,049 the previous year.” Phthisis, as will be seen in Table VIII, destroyed 7,991 in 1863, and 8,559 in 1864. The summary for 1865 has the following passages :—“The seasons of the year 1865 were in many respects remarkable. The winter was cold.” “The mean temperature of each of the first three months lay between 36° and 37°. The mean night temperature of those months was below or little above the freezing point of water; bronchitis was unusually fatal; and the rate of mortality in the coldest weeks of January and February rose a fourth above the annual average.” The deaths by phthisis experienced a further increase from 8,559 to 8,710. Lastly, the summary for 1866 speaks of the mortality of London as being “above the average in nearly all, except the west and the south districts;” while the quarterly return ending March, 1866, speaks of “the weather in the quarter” as “unfavourable to health, and by exciting or aggravating pulmonary diseases, carrying off many persons of advanced age.” In this year bronchitis, which had fallen from 8,666 in 1864 to 7,265 in 1865, rose to 7,512; but phthisis continued to show a progressive increase. It destroyed 7,648 in 1860, 7,716 in 1861, 7,749 in 1862, 7,991 in 1863, 8,559 in 1864, 8,710 in 1865, and 9,277 in 1866.

3. In proof of the great part played by consumption in bringing about fluctuations in prison mortality, I will refer to a paper on the rate of mortality among convicts,* in which the deaths in all the convict prisons are given for the five years 1857 to 1861. In that paper it is shown that the deaths from pulmonary consumption among male prisoners, which were 27 in 1857 and again in 1859, rose in 1858 to 51, or nearly the double of the previous year. The exact value of this fact, as bearing on the present inquiry, will be best seen from the annexed tabular statement :—

	1857.			1858.			Per-centage Increase.
	Males.	Females.	Males and Females.	Males.	Females.	Males and Females.	
Deaths by consump- tion	27	6	33	51	10	61	85
Pardons on ground of same	1	2	3	4	3	7	—
Total	28	8	36	55	13	68	89
Deaths by other dis- eases	36	8	44	53	8	71	61
Pardons on ground of same	2	—	2	1	1	2	—
Total	38	8	46	54	9	73	59
Grand total ...	66	16	82	109	22	141	72

* “On some Results of a Recent Census of the Population of the Convict

From these figures we learn that pulmonary consumption is a disease which prevails to a remarkable extent among our convicts—to such an extent as to account for 44 to 48 per cent. of all the deaths—that the number of its victims may be increased nearly twofold from one year to another, and that, when compared with other causes of death, it is subject to a much more considerable fluctuation, as measured by the numbers 85 or 89, compared with the figures 61 or 59.

Though these figures relate primarily to the convict prisons taken collectively, they doubtless admit of application to the prisons of London, and when taken with the preceding statement, and the facts established in the body of this paper, render it in the highest degree probable that the curious increase of deaths in prisons in 1864, and the high mortality of the two years following, is due in great part to consumption, hastened in its attack, and rendered speedily fatal by the exceptional severity of the season in the years under consideration.

If such an increase of deaths by consumption may take place in our London prisons, where their inmates are so largely protected from the weather, it is easy to understand how at public works, where a considerable exposure to the weather is unavoidable, consumption and diseases of the lungs may come to prevail to an extent to alarm the authorities, and, in the absence of such information as this paper contains, to lead even medical men to attribute the result to the last change, dietetic or otherwise, which may happen to have been made. We have only to suppose this partial and inaccurate view of the case to be submitted to an English jury, and a verdict to be returned in accordance with the evidence, to be able to forecast the consequences. The opinion of the jury, though utterly valueless in a question of medical science, carries with it such undue weight, that no expense will be spared by the authorities to carry its recommendations into effect; and thus it is that the money of the public is wasted, and the public burdens unnecessarily increased. Let me, by way of conclusion, insist on the great value of those statistical records and researches which, when rightly used, minister not less to State efficiency and economy than to truth.

“Prisons in England; and especially on the Rate of Mortality at present Prevailing among Convicts.” By W. A. Guy, M.B., Medical Superintendent of Millbank Prison.—“Transactions of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, 1862,” p. 561.

NOTE on the Rate of Mortality at St. Thomas's Hospital during the last Nine Years.

By THOMAS B. PEACOCK, M.D., *Physician to the Hospital, &c.*

In the year 1862, in consequence of the site of the old hospital being required for railway purposes, the establishment was removed to the present temporary building at Newington. At present the accommodation is much more limited than in the old hospital, so that the number of patients under treatment since the removal has been much less than before, and the rate of mortality in the cases under treatment has considerably increased. The annexed table shows the number of patients discharged, died, and under treatment, during two periods of four years each—the first terminating on the 31st of December, 1861, the second at the same date of 1866—the year 1862 being excluded from calculation, as being that in which the removal took place. From this table it will be seen, that, while the patients under treatment amounted during the first period to a total of 16,258 (or to an annual average of 4,064), and the mean number resident to 437; in the second period the number of patients was only 7,600 (or a yearly average of 1,900), and the number resident was reduced to 189. It will further be seen that the rate of mortality was very considerably higher among the smaller number of patients of the second period than in the larger number of the first period. Thus, during the first period the total number of deaths amounted to 1,433, and the rate of mortality was consequently 8·81 per cent.; while, in the second period, the deaths were 850, and the rate of mortality 11·18 per cent.—a difference of not less than 2·37 per cent. Nor can this change be regarded as a mere temporary or accidental variation, for the rate was uniformly lower in each year of the first period, and higher in each year of the second period, ranging in the former from 8·18 to 9·7 per cent., and in the latter from 10·25 to 13·1 per cent. I proceed to inquire to what cause this increased rate is to be ascribed.

1. It has been shown by Dr. Guy and other statisticians, that the rate of mortality is usually greater in medical than in surgical cases; and thus that the rate will vary in different hospitals according to the variation in the proportions of the several classes of cases which they contain. It will, however, be found from the table that there is only a slight difference between the proportion of the medical and surgical cases under treatment during the two periods; thus, in the first the medical cases constituted 48·7 per cent., and the surgical 51·2; while in the same period the numbers were respectively 45·6 and 54·3; the slight difference which existed tending rather, according to the ordinary rule, to the reduction of the rate in the second period.

2. It has also been shown that the rate of mortality is ordinarily

less in females than in males; and, consequently, that the proportion of the sexes will affect the rates in hospitals. The rate at St. Thomas's cannot, however, have been much affected by this cause in the periods compared, for the proportion of the sexes is nearly identical. In the first period it will be observed that 59·6 per cent. were males and 40·3 per cent. females; while in the second period the numbers were 59·4 and 40·5 respectively.

3. The ages of the patients under treatment might also affect the rate of mortality, the rate being higher according as the mean age is higher. How far this cause may have been influential in modifying the rates of the two periods I am unable to say with certainty; for a complete comparison could only be instituted after an enumeration of the ages of the patients under treatment in both periods; but there is no reason to suppose that in this respect the two sets of cases differed materially.

4. The period of residence of the patients in the hospital might also affect the rate of mortality; for if two hospitals, or the same hospital at two different periods, admitted equal numbers of fatal diseases, such as consumption or malignant diseases, and one hospital, or the same hospital, at one period retained the patients for a longer period than the other, or at another period, the number of such cases dying in the wards would necessarily be greater. It does not, however, appear that this cause was influential in modifying the rates of mortality at St. Thomas's, the duration of residence of the two sets of cases being nearly the same; thus, in the first period the patients were retained on an average 39·2 days, and in the second 36·3 days.

5. It may further be supposed that some unfavourable alteration may have taken place in the management of the hospital at the time of the removal, or that the sanitary state of the temporary building may be less satisfactory than was that of the old hospital. There is, however, no reason to suppose that this is the case. The staff of the hospital remains nearly the same as it was when the patients were fewer in number, and the patients might therefore be supposed to receive greater care and attention in the new hospital. The temporary building is also better placed than the old hospital. It is situated in a much less crowded neighbourhood, and is surrounded by a garden of fully fourteen acres in extent. The wards are large and high, and the amount of space is ample, being in the accident-ward not less than 1,500 cubic feet, and in the other two wards between 2,000 and 3,000 feet. The whole space occupied by the old hospital did not exceed four acres. The wards in the more ancient parts of the building had only a cubic space of 500 to 800 or 1,100 feet, and in the new building of 1,600 feet, and the neighbourhood was much crowded. It is true that the under drainage of the present site is defective, and the ground is consequently damp and cold; and the hospital has been by no means free from erysipelas, hospital sore, and other diseases resulting from impure air, but such diseases occurred also in the old hospital, and the rate of mortality has probably not been materially increased by this cause.

6. It does not, therefore, appear that any of the circumstances named are sufficient to explain the increase in the rate of mortality

of the hospital since its removal; and the only causes to which the change can be assigned are the increased severity of the cases under treatment, the smaller proportion of trivial cases received, and the exclusion of certain classes of cases of which the rate of mortality is low.

On referring to the table, it will be seen that the rates varied in each class of cases, medical and surgical, and in the two sexes; and (as might naturally be supposed) these variations are most marked in the second or smaller series of cases, the increase in the rate being considerable in all the classes. Thus, the mortality among the medical cases was in the first period 12.52, in the second 14.42. In the surgical cases, in the first period, the rate was 5.28, in the second 8.46. In males, the rate in the first period was 9.53, in the second 10.89. In females, in the first period 7.75, in the second 11.6. This general increase certainly points to increased severity in the cases treated, and is in accordance with personal observation of the practice of the hospital before and since the removal. The old hospital had accommodation for 500 patients, and was in close proximity to another hospital admitting a similar or larger number, and it received many persons from distant localities, causes all of which tended to lessen the number of cases of acute and severe disease, and to increase the proportion of chronic and trivial cases admitted into the hospital. In the temporary hospital there are only accommodation for 213 patients; it is situated upwards of a mile and a-half from any other hospital, and it receives its supply of patients chiefly from the adjacent parts of the town, and thus the cases admitted are generally of a more acute and serious character. At present also venereal and other cases, of which the rate of mortality is almost nil, are not received into the hospital, though a considerable number of such cases were admitted into the old hospital; and this, doubtless is a chief cause of the increased rate of mortality in surgical cases, and especially among females, which is very noticeable in the table. The proportion of venereal cases admitted was much larger in the old hospital in females than in males.

These considerations all tend to confirm the inference that the higher rate of mortality which has obtained at St. Thomas's Hospital of late years is due to the greater severity of the cases admitted, and they are in accordance with the conclusion arrived at by Dr. Guy, that "within the limits of the same capital city, the mortality of hospitals is mainly due to causes which determine the nature and severity of the cases admitted within their walls," and still further illustrate his remarks on the caution which should be exercised in drawing inferences as to the efficiency of different hospitals from the rates of mortality which may obtain in them either generally or during particular periods.

ST. THOMAS'S HOSPITAL:—*Summary of Patients Discharged, Died, and Under Treatment in Two Periods of Four Years each, the first ending 31st December, 1861, the second 31st December, 1866.*

	First Period.	Second Period.
Patients under treatment	16,285	7,600
Deaths	1,433	850
Mortality per cent.	8·81	11·18
Males	9,704	4,516
Deaths.....	924	492
Mortality per cent.	9·53	10·89
Females	6,554	3,084
Deaths.....	509	358
Mortality per cent.	7·75	11·6
Proportion of males	59·6	59·4
„ females	40·3	40·5
Medical cases	7,928	3,467
Deaths.....	993	500
Mortality per cent.	12·52	14·42
Surgical cases.....	8,330	4,133
Deaths.....	440	350
Mortality per cent.	5·28	8·46
Proportion of medical cases.....	48·7	45·6
„ surgical „	51·2	54·3
Mean numbers resident	437	189
„ period of residence (days)	39·2	36·3

CENTRAL STATISTICAL COMMISSION of AUSTRIA; ANALYSIS of REPORT
for 1866. By W. THOMAS NEWMARCH, *Associate of King's
College, London, and A.A., Oxon.*

[Read before the Statistical Society, Tuesday, 18th June, 1867.]

THE Central Statistical Commission at Vienna is composed of twenty members, appointed to it officially from among the secretaries and heads of the Governmental departments, and is presided over by M. von Glauz, a counsellor in the Ministry of State.

The Commission holds monthly meetings, at which communications are read by the members, and reports presented by the select committees named by the Commission to investigate particular subjects; in fact, the Commission would seem to combine the functions of the Statistical Society and the Statistical Department of the Board of Trade.

The Commission publishes an annual report, and the issue for 1866 contains much valuable information.

Among the subjects of the thirty-nine memoirs and papers contained in the report, the following are of the greatest general interest.

The reports of the Select Committees named to prepare—A Population Table (to be based on the Census of 1861);—to prepare A Statistical Handbook;—to prepare a set of Questions to be filled up by the Secretaries of Legation and by Consuls, concerning the Commerce of the different countries where they reside, in the same manner as the Reports made by the Secretaries of the English Legations, and presented annually to Parliament;—to consider Criminal Statistics, Railway Statistics, and the Statistics of Lunatic Asylums.

The reports on the above-mentioned subjects are very similar to the reports on the same subjects in this country.

Among the papers read before the Commission are three of great interest and value to which a fuller notice may here be given, viz. :—

(a) A Statement of the Comparative Consumption of Articles of Food in Vienna, by Dr. Ficker.

(b) Statistics of Marriages, Births, and Deaths from 1851 to 1864, together with the prices of Wheat and Rye, by M. Schimmer, of the Bureau of Administrative Statistics.

(c) Statistics of the Losses of the Austrian Army in the Campaign against Prussia in 1866, communicated from the Ministry of War.

The information afforded by the first-named paper (a) is comprised in the following table:—

(A.)—*Consumption of Food, &c., in Vienna, per Head of Population.*

Article.	Amount.	1850.	1857.	1864.
Beer.....	Quarts	18·3	19·3	21·8
Wine	"	7·6	6·6	6·1
Meat	lbs.	120·6	120·6	115·1
Flour and bread.....	"	266·5	281·4	255·0
Cheese	"	3·1	3·3	3·0
Butter	"	6·3	6·8	6·7
Lard	"	13·2	14·7	12·8
Eggs	No.	99·4	98·0	81·6
Fresh fruit	lbs.	35·6	52·1	48·7
Firewood	Cubic feet	57·2	47·3	38·4
Coal.....	lbs.	191·9	252·9	476·4

It will be seen that the greatest increase has taken place in the consumption of coal and the greatest decrease in that of firewood, showing how even in Vienna coal is supplanting wood as the fuel for household use.

The nearest coal mines to Vienna are at Wollfsegg, near Gmunden, on the Western Railway, and at Leoben, near Bruck, in Styria, on the Southern Railway; Wollfsegg is about 100 miles and Leoben 120 miles from Vienna. The quality of the coal at Leoben is, however, much superior to that at Wollfsegg. Both are lignites.

Next with regard to Mr. Schimmer's paper on the Statistics of Marriages, Births, and Deaths.

His tables commence with the year 1851, which was the first year in which statistics were available from the whole of the empire.

The prices of wheat and rye are given in the table in metzen, which is equal to 13·6 gallons, so that 5 metzen make a quarter as nearly as possible; the prices have, consequently, been multiplied by 5, and the florins converted into shillings, at an exchange of 2s., so that the prices in the tables which follow are in the same form as those used in this country, viz., in shillings sterling per quarter.

The first table contains the total number of Marriages in each of the fourteen years, 1851 to 1864, together with columns showing

the number of these marriages which were first and second marriages respectively, and the prices of wheat and rye.

It is remarkable that the marriages follow the prices of the chief articles of food almost more accurately than they do in this country, and are consequently least in number in 1855, when wheat was at the highest, namely, 6os. 4*d.* per quarter. In that year it is curious to observe that the diminution caused by the high price of food took place in first and not in second marriages, the number of which is, in fact, 2,000 above the average of the fourteen years.

(B.)—*Marriages in each Year from 1851 to 1864, together with the Prices of Wheat and Rye.*

Year.	Total Marriages.	Among Single Persons.	Among Widows and Widowers.	Price of Wheat	Price of Rye.
	No.	No.	No.	Per quarter. s. d.	Per quarter. s. d.
1851	316,236	223,161	93,075	33 10	24 8
'52	297,787	216,768	81,019	38 6	31 —
'53	263,627	188,045	75,582	45 6	33 10
'54	241,799	162,789	79,010	58 1	43 8
'55	228,515	146,387	82,128	60 4	44 3
1856	295,970	199,309	96,661	54 8	36 2
'57	281,643	200,768	80,875	44 3	28 —
'58	280,558	200,205	80,353	43 2	26 2
'59	242,371	169,828	72,543	45 2	29 8
'60	289,119	210,984	78,135	43 9	30 8
1861	286,244	210,227	76,017	44 2	31 1
'62	304,188	225,221	78,967	44 6	33 8
'63	296,951	218,861	78,090	42 6	31 11
'64	285,628	212,525	73,103	37 6	25 —
Average....	279,329	198,934	80,397	45 4	32 1

A decrease occurred in 1855, which had for its cause the cholera, and another decrease took place in 1859, which was caused by the Italian war.

The great increase in 1856 was partly caused by the cessation of the Cholera, and partly by the Concordat concluded with the Pope, by which people who had been living together were compelled to marry to escape certain legal and ecclesiastical consequences.

The next Table (C) contains the *Marriages in each month*, with the respective proportion which each particular month bears to the annual total.

The marriages are classified among the civil and the military population and the inhabitants of the great towns, Vienna, Pesth and Prague.

(C.)—*Austrian Empire: Marriages according to Months, 1851-64.*

Month.	Civil Population.			Military Population.			Population of Great Towns.		
	Average in 14 Years.	Daily Average of Month.	Pro-portion.	1851 to 1864.	Daily Average of Month.	Pro-portion.	1851 to 1864.	Daily Average of Month.	Pro-portion.
	No.	No.	Per cent.	No.	No.	Per cent.	No.	No.	Per cent.
Jan.	35,797	1,155	12·6	1,274	411	11·5	5,710	184	6·9
Feb.	55,591	1,985	21·6	1,836	286	8·0	12,419	444	16·7
March	7,219	233	2·5	321	184	2·9	1,961	63	2·4
April	10,725	357	3·9	765	255	7·2	4,367	146	5·5
May ...	22,091	713	7·7	1,016	328	9·2	9,319	301	11·3
June ...	16,327	545	5·9	909	303	8·5	6,021	201	7·6
July	12,581	406	4·4	757	244	6·8	5,624	181	6·8
Aug. ...	11,760	379	4·1	803	259	7·3	7,155	231	8·7
Sept.	13,459	449	4·9	944	315	8·8	6,203	207	7·8
Oct.	22,451	724	7·9	934	301	8·4	7,840	253	9·5
Nov.	64,440	2,148	23·3	2,173	724	20·3	12,945	431	16·2
Dec.	3,499	113	1·2	124	40	1·1	489	16	0·6

The two remarkable diminutions in March and December arise from marriages being forbidden by the Roman Catholic Church during Lent and Advent. The greatest number of marriages take place previous to Advent, and during the Carnival previous to Lent.

The next Table (D) shows the *Births and Deaths* in each year from 1851 to 1864, together with the excess of births over deaths, and also the mortality between birth and 5 years' old.

The births show an excess in every year except 1855, when the Cholera prevailed. In that year the deaths exceeded the births by 284,910, in fact by about as many as the births should have exceeded the deaths; the population was, therefore, thrown back two years.

A partial recovery took place in 1856-57, for the weaker members of the population having been carried off by the epidemic, those who remained behind were strong enough to outlive ordinary causes of mortality during the two following years.

(D.)—*Austrian Empire: Births and Deaths, 1851-64.*

Year.	Births.	Excess of Births over Deaths.	Died Under 5 Years Old.	Deaths.
	No.	No.	No.	
1851	1,289,336	325,330	508,294	964,006
'52	1,302,240	314,147	469,982	988,093
'53	1,279,226	183,107	514,161	1 096,119
'54	1,208,853	130,965	514,673	1 177,888
'55	1,151,039	284,910	545,477	1,435,949
1856	1,245,330	243,262	456,494	1,002,068
'57	1,373,988	426,171	474,400	947,817
'58	1,364,905	328,757	520,093	1,036,148
'59	1,413,983	409,688	525,949	1,004,295
'60	1,342,992	356,064	494,613	986,928
1861	1,334,727	286,711	530,996	1,048,016
'62	1,358,116	314,713	524,436	1,043,403
'63	1,417,927	352,553	559,160	1,065,374
'64	1,426,906	325,640	550,620	1,101,266
Average	1,322,112	264,443	513,668	1,057,669

If the cholera year 1855 be excluded in taking the average, the figures would be 1,028,571 *Deaths* instead of 1,057,669. Next to 1855 the greatest mortality occurred in 1863 and 1864, the years of scarcity, in 1863 indeed of famine in Hungary; but it is to be observed that in these years the highest comparative mortality was among young children. The deaths among children were 37,000 above the average, at a time when the total deaths are not very greatly in excess. On the contrary, in 1855, when the Cholera prevailed, the excessive mortality was among adults, although it affected the children to some extent also.

The subjoined Table (E) contains the deaths according to months, the population being classified as before:—

(E.)—*Austrian Empire: Deaths according to Months.*

Month.	Civil Population.			Military Population.			In the Great Towns.		
	Average in 14 Years.	Daily Average of Month.	Pro- portion.	1851 to 1864.	Daily Average of Month.	Pro- portion.	Average of 14 Years.	Daily Average of Month.	Pro- portion.
			Per cent.			Per cent.			Per cent.
Jan.	109,085	3,519	10°0	7,595	245	7°7	2,859	92	8°3
Feb.	98,267	3,510	10°0	8,003	286	9°0	2,730	98	8°9
March	106,252	3,427	9°8	9,407	303	9°5	3,230	104	9°4
April	93,405	3,113	8°9	9,764	325	10°3	3,196	107	9°8
May	84,236	2,717	7°7	9,757	315	9°8	3,222	104	9°4
June	72,504	2,417	6°9	8,197	273	8°6	2,983	99	8°9
July	74,530	2,404	6°8	8,634	279	8°8	2,760	89	8°1
Aug.	86,503	2,790	7°9	8,304	268	8°4	2,780	90	8°1
Sept.	82,194	2,740	7°8	6,359	212	6°6	2,350	78	7°0
Oct.	80,402	2,594	7°4	5,548	179	5°6	2,412	78	7°0
Nov.	88,109	2,937	8°4	7,469	249	7°8	2,417	81	7°3
Dec.	91,106	2,939	8°4	7,841	253	7°9	2,660	86	7°8

The comparative mortality in the army and in the Great Towns is as nearly as possible the same.

The highest mortality in these two classes occurs in *April*, which in the army is explained by the new recruits joining at that time, and in the towns by the excessive fatality of consumption, which is much higher among the urban than the rural population.

The highest mortality among the Civil population occurs in winter, and is explained by their being badly housed and overcrowded. The mortality in the army and in the great towns is not excessive in winter, on account of the better protection which they have from the elements.

The mortality decreases during the summer months in each case.

The lowest mortality shown is that among the military in September and October, or during the time when they are exercised much in the open air.

The following Table (F) contains the *Births* according to months, the population being classified as before:—

(F).—*Austrian Empire: Births, 1851-64.*

Month.	Civil Population.			Military Population.			In the Great Towns.		
	Average of 14 Years.	Daily Average of Month.	Pro-portion.	1851 to 1864.	Daily Average of Month.	Pro-portion.	Average of 14 Years.	Daily Average of Month.	Pro-portion.
			Per cent.			Per cent.			Per cent.
Jan. ...	134,431	4,336	8·9	1,177	38	8·5	3,252	105	8·4
Feb.	123,715	4,418	9·1	1,064	38	8·5	3,152	112	9·0
March ...	131,570	4,244	8·8	1,176	38	8·5	3,424	110	8·8
April	122,678	4,089	8·4	1,112	37·7	8·5	3,255	108	8·7
May	122,248	3,943	8·2	1,133	36·5	8·2	3,359	105	8·4
June	114,768	3,826	7·9	1,085	36·2	8·1	3,110	104	8·4
July	120,758	3,895	8·0	1,114	35·9	8·1	3,077	99	7·9
Aug.	120,558	3,889	8·0	1,161	37·4	8·4	3,068	99	7·9
Sept.	120,193	4,006	8·3	1,133	37·8	8·5	3,031	101	8·1
Oct.	123,288	3,977	8·2	1,030	33·2	7·5	3,075	99	7·9
Nov.	121,113	4,037	8·3	1,174	39·1	8·8	3,117	104	8·4
Dec.	118,249	3,814	7·9	1,157	37·3	8·4	3,158	102	8·1

The highest *birth-rate* is shown in January and February, and the lowest in October. The cause of this can be referred to the season of the year by reckoning back nine months in order to arrive at the date of the conceptions, when it will be found that the most conceptions take place in summer, *i.e.*, in May and June, and the fewest in February, when the cold is the greatest and has lasted the longest.

The last Table (G) shows the comparative numbers of the Legitimate and Illegitimate births, also arranged according to months.

The percentage of illegitimate births throughout the empire is 9·5, but of these by far the greatest number occur in the large towns, for in Vienna the proportion is 50·0, in Prague 47·6, and in Pesth 35·5 per cent. of the total number of births in those cities respectively.

(G.)—Austrian Empire: Legitimate and Illegitimate Births, 1851-64.

Month.	Births.					
	Legitimate.			Illegitimate.		
	Average of 14 Years.	Daily Average of Month.	Proportion.	Average of 14 Years.	Daily Average of Month.	Proportion
			Per cent.			Per cent.
Jan.	106,162	3,420	8·8	12,756	412	9·3
Feb.	100,753	3,598	9·2	11,957	427	9·7
March	105,849	3,414	8·8	12,390	400	9·0
April	96,861	3,229	8·3	11,418	380	8·6
May	95,180	3,070	7·9	11,531	372	8·4
June	90,177	3,006	7·7	10,562	352	8·0
July	95,823	3,091	7·9	10,494	339	7·7
Aug.	99,596	3,213	8·2	10,139	327	7·4
Sept.	100,277	3,343	8·6	10,366	345	7·8
Oct.	102,070	3,292	8·4	10,533	340	7·7
Nov.	97,771	3,259	8·4	10,924	364	8·2
Dec.	93,673	3,022	7·8	11,335	365	8·2

The highest birth-rate is the same in both cases as in the general table, and takes place in January and February.

The concluding paper is the one communicated by the Ministry of War, and containing the statistics of the losses incurred in the war with Prussia in 1866.

The combatant strength of the army employed against Prussia was 10,932 officers, and 396,291 men; together 407,223.

The total of the Austrian army for the year 1866 was 19,538 officers and 627,098 men; together 646,636.

(H.)—Combatant Strength of Austrian Army, 1866.

Kind of Troops.	Officers.	Men.	Total.
Infantry	6,686	249,243	255,929
Rifles	1,118	42,871	43,989
Border infantry	480	16,794	17,274
Heavy cavalry	312	7,008	7,320
Light „	883	19,807	20,690
Artillery	513	22,245	22,758
Hospital corps	50	2,380	2,430
Engineers	334	11,458	11,792
Military train	556	24,485	25,041
Total	10,932	396,291	407,223

The number of killed, wounded, and missing of each of the above description of troops is contained in the annexed table.

(I.)—*Austrian Army, 1866: Killed, Wounded and Missing.*

Kind of Troops.	Officers.			Men.			Total.		
	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.
Infantry	428	1,138	352	7,997	21,545	32,710	8,425	22,683	33,062
Rifles	102	192	49	1,538	3,987	6,231	1,640	4,179	6,280
Tyrolese rifles....	14	22	1	104	412	163	118	434	164
Border infantry	4	22	2	68	328	191	72	350	193
Cuirasiers	10	33	23	148	205	890	158	238	913
Dragoons	2	6	—	26	68	65	28	74	65
Hussars	3	27	22	127	181	495	130	208	517
Lancers	7	21	10	105	202	1,013	112	223	1,023
Artillery	17	44	20	292	868	1,331	309	912	1,351
Hospital corps	—	—	1	1	3	71	1	3	72
Engineers	—	—	1	—	3	24	—	3	25
Military train ..	—	—	2	1	3	80	1	3	82
Total	587	1,505	483	10,407	27,865	43,264	10,994	29,310	43,747

The table below contains the number per 1,000 of the fighting strength of each of the different kinds of troops who were killed, wounded, or missing:—

(K.)—*Austrian Army, 1866, Proportion per 1,000 of Casualties.*

Kind of Troops.	Officers.			Men.			Total.		
	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.
Infantry	64·0	170·2	52·6	32·1	86·4	131·2	32·9	88·6	129·2
Rifles	103·8	191·4	44·7	38·3	102·6	149·1	40·0	104·9	146·5
Border infantry	8·3	45·8	4·2	4·0	19·5	11·4	4·2	20·3	11·2
Heavy cavalry....	32·1	105·8	73·7	21·1	29·2	127·0	21·6	32·5	124·7
Light „	13·6	61·2	36·2	13·0	22·8	79·4	13·0	24·4	76·0
Artillery	33·1	85·8	39·0	13·1	39·0	59·8	13·6	40·1	59·4
Hospital corps	—	—	20·0	0·4	1·3	29·8	0·4	1·2	29·6
Engineers	—	—	3·0	—	0·3	2·1	—	0·3	2·1
Military train....	—	—	3·6	0·1	0·1	3·3	0·1	0·1	3·3
	53·7	137·7	44·2	26·3	70·2	109·2	27·0	72·0	107·4

The next and last table contains a list of the losses at the battle of Lissa (July, 1866) on board each ship:—

(L.)—*Casualties at the Naval Battle of Lissa, July, 1866.*

	Officers.			Men.		Total.		
	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.	Killed.	Wounded.	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.
Marines	—	—	—	11	16	11	16	—
<i>Iron-clads—</i>								
Ferdinand Max	—	2	—	1	5	1	7	—
Prince Eugen	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	—
Drache	1	1	—	—	5	1	6	—
Salamander	—	2	—	—	7	—	9	—
Don Juan	—	—	1	1	4	1	4	1
Kaiser Max	—	—	—	—	3	—	3	—
<i>Sailing Liners—</i>								
Kaiser	1	5	—	17	31	18	36	—
Novara	1	2	—	5	49	6	51	—
<i>Screw Frigates—</i>								
Schwarzenburg ...	—	1	—	—	1	—	2	—
Adria	—	—	—	—	7	—	7	—
Donau	—	—	—	1	2	1	2	—
<i>Paddle Steamer—</i>								
Elizabeth	—	—	—	—	5	—	5	—
Total	3	13	1	36	136	39	149	1

The foregoing papers and tables have been selected from among a large amount of valuable statistics which have been brought together by the various members of the Central Statistical Commission with no little labour, and for which the members of the Commission deserve the consideration of statisticians in all countries.

It is exceedingly gratifying to find evidence of so much real progress in statistical organisation in Austria. There is scarcely a country in Europe in which the immediate and direct value of accurate statistical data will be greater; and looking at the manner in which the Central Commission has hitherto conducted its proceedings, we are justified in expecting from its example and influence the best results.

MISCELLANEA.

CONTENTS:

	PAGE		PAGE
I.—Statistics of the Clearing House	332	III.—The Insane Poor of Great Britain and Ireland	336
II.—Defective Registration of Births and Deaths in England.....	334	IV.—Dangers and Decay of the French Race	343
		V.—The British Leather Trade ..	345

I.—*Statistics of the Clearing House.*

THE Editor has been favoured by Sir John Lubbock with the following communication, accompanied by the interesting return printed below it:—

“ *Lombard Street,*
“ *7th June, 1867.*

“ Sir,—The committee of bankers having determined to ascertain and publish the total daily amount passing through the Clearing House, I have the pleasure of forwarding you the first series of these statistics.

“ We have determined to commence the week on Thursday, in order that the publication may coincide with that of the Bank of England balance sheet; but to make the statistics for the month complete, I have added the amount for Wednesday, the 1st May, namely, 8,006,000*l.*

“ It would, of course, be very interesting if the amount of bills could be distinguished from that of cheques. This is at present impracticable; but the amount on the 4th of each month, which is the principal day for the settlement of inland bills, will be a guide to the relative activity of our inland trade, while the totals on the Stock Exchange settling days will be an indication of the increase or decrease of business on that market.

“ It is hardly necessary for me to observe that the Clearing House returns do not give the whole of the transactions passing through the London banks.

“ If the accompanying figures are compared with those of the year 1839 (see *Journal of the Statistical Society* for 1856), the same remarkable progress will be observed as that shown by the Board of Trade returns.

“ The average amounts for each day of the week in 1839 were—

	Average of each Day of the Week.	Average of each Day of the Week, Omitting the 4th of each Month and Settling Days.
	£	£
Thursday.....	2,725,000	2,367,400
Friday	3,098,800	2,912,900
Saturday	3,621,700	3,575,000
Monday	2,927,700	2,653,200
Tuesday	3,292,600	3,123,200
Wednesday.....	2,734,400	2,514,700
	18,400,200	17,146,400

"We have not yet sufficient data for a corresponding calculation; but the average of the five subjoined weeks is nearly 60,000,000*l.*, showing an excess of more than 40,000,000*l.*

"Our export trade for last year was 188,900,000*l.*, against 53,200,000*l.* for 1839 (see the *Economist*, 11th May, 1867), and is, therefore, three and a-half times as large as it was then. The Clearing House returns coincide very closely with this, as they show an increase of three and a-quarter times, and it must be remembered that business is far from active at present. It is very probable, therefore, that before long the Clearing House returns will be found to tally even more closely with those of the Board of Trade.

"I may add that the largest amount which passed through the Clearing House in any one day in 1839 was 6,209,900*l.*, and the smallest was 1,529,700*l.*

"I am, Sir, your ob. serv.

"JOHN LUBBOCK,

"*Hon. Sec. London Bankers.*"

"F. Purdy, Esq., Ed. S. J."

Return of the Daily Amounts Passing through the Bankers' Clearing House during the Five Weeks ended with 5th June, 1867.

	£	£
Wednesday, 1st May	8,006,000	
Thursday, 2nd May	8,767,000	
Friday, 3rd „	10,188,000	
Saturday, 4th „	12,900,000	
Monday, 6th „	7,302,000	
Tuesday, 7th „	8,647,000	
Wednesday, 8th „	9,220,000	
<i>Total for the week</i>	—	57,024,000
Thursday, 9th May	9,554,000	
Friday, 10th „	9,453,000	
Saturday, 11th „	9,321,000	
Monday, 13th „	8,301,000	
Tuesday, 14th „	8,968,000	
Wednesday, 15th „	18,177,000	
<i>Total for the week</i>	—	63,774,000
Thursday, 16th May	10,155,000	
Friday, 17th „	11,309,000	
Saturday, 18th „	11,685,000	
Monday, 20th „	7,580,000	
Tuesday, 21st „	8,451,000	
Wednesday, 22nd „	8,288,000	
<i>Total for the week</i>	—	57,468,000

Return of the Daily Amounts Passing through the Bankers' Clearing House
—Contd.

	£	£
Thursday, 23rd May,	7,986,000	
Friday, 24th „	9,112,000	
Saturday, 25th „	9,653,000	
Monday, 27th „	8,293,000	
Tuesday, 28th „	9,348,000	
Wednesday, 29th „	7,679,000	
<i>Total for the week</i>	—	52,071,000
Thursday, 30th May	7,793,000	
Friday, 31st „	18,329,000	
Saturday, 1st June	11,206,000	
Monday, 3rd „	9,281,000	
Tuesday, 4th „	13,132,000	
Wednesday, 5th „	8,639,000	
<i>Total for the week</i>	—	<u>68,380,000</u>

II.—*Defective Registration of Births and Deaths in England.*

THE annexed memorial from the *Manchester Statistical Society* was recently presented to Her Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Home Department. Whether regarded socially, or from a merely statistical point of view, the questions raised by the memorialists are of grave and practical import.

“ *The Memorial of the Members of the Manchester Statistical Society.*

“ Humbly sheweth,

“ That your memorialists, being deeply impressed with the importance of securing a correct national registry of births and deaths, and having appointed a committee to investigate the subject, are strongly of opinion that the time has now arrived for further legislative action.

“ That sanitary legislation and scientific inquiries are based upon the Registrar-General's returns, and although the heads of the department have worked with great zeal and diligence, it has been found that 17 per cent. of all recorded cases of deaths, the cause is absolutely uncertified, the total numbers so uncertified amounting to 85,000 annually.

“ That the mortuary record has no legal sanction, both the Court of Chancery and the Bank of England refuse to accept the death certificate as proof of death.

“ That the law is defective in the following particulars:—

“ There is no compulsory power to obtain a scientific record of the cause of death, and there is no security under the provisions

of the Registration Act, against fraudulent statements and the concealment of crimes of violence.

“ Still-born children are not registered, and the omission has notoriously facilitated the burial of children as still-born, who have been born alive.

“ Infanticide has greatly increased, and the grave too often conceals the evidence of secret poisoning. In Norfolk it is known that twenty burials were effected under the sanction of the registrar, yet evidence subsequently procured led to the detection of poison in each case.

“ There is no efficient check upon the district registrars, and it is only in gross cases of fraudulent returns that there is a probability of detection. In four instances the temptation of the shilling fee has led to extensive forgeries of names attached to fictitious deaths. The assistance derived from coroners in their reports to the registrar is not as perfect as it might be.

“ Scientific medical assistance in coroner’s courts is only sought where there is suspicion of foul play, and in ordinary cases the cause of death returned by the coroner is necessarily inexact. In not a few instances, unsatisfactory returns are made in suspicious cases, over which the coroner has no control.

“ That in a Report by Dr. Buchanan, published by the Privy Council, it is stated, that in 1862, forty-five deaths occurred in St. Giles, in which there ought to have been a proper inquiry; in thirty-six there was no medical certificate, and in eleven no medical attendant. In two instances there was *prima facie* evidence of poisoning. In the deaths of twenty infants under a week old, there was no medical evidence at all. It is only right to add that Dr. Buchanan has year by year reported a considerable reduction of these defective returns. Dr. Lankester mentions a large number of cases where medical certificates have been given, and where registration and burial have been effected, which were highly unsatisfactory. In some cases certificates were given where the doctors had not seen the patients alive; and others again, where they had neither seen them alive or dead. He alludes to instances of sudden and violent deaths, without any notice being given to the coroner.

“ In some cases under the present law, extraordinary laxity prevails in obtaining certificates of deaths. In South Wales, it appears from a report furnished to the Privy Council, great confusion has prevailed in the registrar’s books. The following instances are amongst the most noteworthy :—

	Certified.	Not Certified.
At Aberaeron out of 500 notices....	333	167
„ Llanybether „ ...	101	399
„ St. David’s „	15	485
„ Pembroke „	163	287
	612	1,338

“That your memorialists believe the appointment of duly qualified officers of health would assist the Registrar-General in obtaining correct mortuary returns, and at the same time benefit the country in various other ways. Your petitioners consider it desirable that some attempt at organisation should be made at once, but that it is desirable to delay the appointments generally, until special education has provided a class of skilled persons competent to undertake the duties. A liberal stipend, partly paid by the Treasury, would attract an accomplished staff, whose duties, in addition to inquiry into every death, with power to make *post mortem* examinations, and to report to the authorities, might include assistance to the coroner and a general sanitary supervision of his district.

“That this would involve an inquiry into water supply, analyses of food, and the investigation of nuisances, and other agencies injurious to health.

“That the district of each officer should not be too extensive, and should follow union divisions.

“That the advantages resulting would be, an improved record of deaths; security to the public that coroner’s inquests would be searching and scientific inquiries; a greater security against secret crimes, and a scientific attention to the sanitary requirements of each locality.

“That the Sanitary Act passed last session is admirable in its intentions, but it will prove a dead letter if its administration rests with the present sanitary authorities. If the Act is to be efficient, the health officer must in every instance be the adviser, if not the public prosecutor, and he must be thoroughly independent in the performance of his duties.

“That the necessity of these appointments seems undeniable to your memorialists, but the manner in which they should be made demands careful investigation.

“That an inquiry into the deficiencies of the Registration Act, and into the best mode of appointing officers of health should, in the opinion of your memorialists, be undertaken by a Royal Commission, or by some similar authority.

“Signed on behalf of the Society,

“DAVID CHADWICK, *President*.

“THOMAS BROWNING, } *Hon. Secs.*”

“HENRY CARNE OATS, }

III.--*The Insane Poor of Great Britain and Ireland.*

THESE statistics are reprinted from the *Manchester Guardian* of 19th February, 1867; they complete the account for the United Kingdom, commenced at p. 158.

3.—*The Insane Poor of Ireland.*

“A few weeks since a detailed statement was given in these columns of the number of the insane poor in England and Wales and in Scotland. We now

propose to complete the survey for the United Kingdom, by placing the statistics of Irish insanity before our readers, so far as the official reports furnish appropriate materials for the investigation. In one respect the sister isle is painfully distinguished from Great Britain, namely, the accommodation which she provides for the insane. With us, all who are mentally afflicted are lodged in asylums or in work-houses, or reside in private establishments and houses under the surveillance of the Commissioners in Lunacy, and the same system practically obtains in Scotland. But in Ireland fully half of those known to the authorities to be of unsound mind are ‘at large.’ In 1861, the total number of insane persons in Ireland was 17,046, or 29·4 per 10,000 of the population, according to the census of that year—a proportion much exceeding the corresponding ratios found for England and for Scotland. In asylums, workhouses, and gaols, 8,055 only were domiciled; while 8,991—so say the returns carefully gathered by the constabulary—were entirely destitute of the shelter and attendance of the kind provided for the smaller moiety.

“The number in one or the other of the Irish institutions is much greater now than formerly. Those which may be termed the ‘in-door insane,’ are thus shown for the 31st December, 1848, and for the same day of 1865:—

	1848.	1865.	Difference in 1865.
In public asylums	2,603	4,835	2,232 more
„ private „	432	583	151 „
„ gaols	338	505	167 „
„ workhouses	1,940	2,733	793 „
„ local and central asylums	365	189	176 less
Total	5,678	8,845	3,167 more

“As the in-door increase the out-door diminish. Thus, in 1862, ‘the most recent constabulary returns made out,’ stated the number of the latter class to be 8,209. The earlier statements are given with some *minutiæ* for each county, and from these we have abstracted a summary in the following form:—

Insane Persons at Large in Ireland on 1st of April, 1861, according to Returns Collected by the Constabulary in that Year.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Lunatics	866	785	1,651
Idiots	3,148	2,321	5,469
Epileptics	945	926	1,871
Total of the insane at large	4,959	4,032	8,991

“There are no further statistics of the out-door insane, the unprovided—consequently they here drop out of notice. The in-door, as the next table shows, have increased 10 per cent. since 1861:—

Insane Persons in Ireland in Public and Private Asylums, in Gaols, and Poorhouses on the 31st December, in the Five Years ended with 1865.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
1861.....	3,820	4,235	8,055
'62.....	3,809	4,053	7,862
'63.....	4,086	4,186	8,272
'64.....	4,179	4,240	8,419
'65.....	4,403	4,442	8,845

“The augmentation of the in-door, facilitated greatly by the more liberal provision of asylum accommodation, is more marked among the men, who increased from 3,820 to 4,403, or 15·3 per cent. in five years, while the increase of women was from 4,235 to 4,442, or 4·9 per cent. only. The approach to equality in the number of males and of females is noticeable in the figures of 1865. Emigration from Ireland has done nothing to diminish the number of the insane. ‘We may here observe,’ say the official inspectors in their thirteenth report, ‘that no very perceptible diminution has taken place in the number of the insane in this country within the last ten years, notwithstanding a marked decrease in the population at large. On inquiring throughout the provinces which on official inspection it is our duty to traverse, we hear that not only are the infirm of mind and body left at home by their emigrant friends, but that the insane, the epileptic, and debilitated are often sent back to their native country from America as being ill-calculated for social employment or military duties.’ This is a melancholy picture indeed, and militates with the common impression that the poor Irish are strongly attached to their kith and kin.

“The insane poor who find refuge in the workhouses are divided into lunatics and idiots, and subdivided into ‘simple’ and ‘epileptic’ :—

Lunatics in the Irish Workhouses on the 1st March, 1866.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Simple lunatics	276	532	808
Epileptic „	118	148	266
Total of both classes of lunatics....	394	680	1,074

“To ten paupers classed as lunatics, there are sixteen who fall under the denomination of ‘idiot.’ In the workhouses the females largely outnumber the males, especially among the lunatics, while taking the insane generally, as we stated above, the males and females are nearly equal. By ‘simple idiots,’ the reporters mean those afflicted with congenital insanity. These cases are stated to be far below the proportion which is met with either in England or in Wales. With Scotland no comparison can be made. Speaking of the congenitally-afflicted poor in the workhouses, it is observed that ‘many are to be found there utterly demented, or destitute of all reasoning power, the result of cerebral disease, or of a protracted series of epileptic attacks; but idiocy in the true acceptance of the term is rare in Ireland; neither, from the inquiries we have made, is there reason to think that there is much of it in the poorer classes throughout the country.’* By the latest statement of the Irish authorities, there were but 1,175 simple idiots domiciled, while the total number of idiots in England and Wales was 10,210. But of the congenital insane who are at large in Ireland, no numbers are given, and without them the comparison is of little worth. If ‘idiot’ in the constabulary returns

* Fifteenth Report on the Lunatic Asylums, Ireland.

of 1861 means 'simple idiot,' then it will be found that the congenital insane much exceed the English proportion.

Idiots in the Irish Workhouses on 1st March, 1866.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
<i>Under 14 Years of Age—</i>			
Simple idiots	51	33	84
Epileptic „	14	11	25
<i>14 Years of Age and Under 30—</i>			
Simple idiots	228	243	471
Epileptic „	92	129	221
<i>Over 30 Years of Age—</i>			
Simple idiots	237	383	620
Epileptic „	84	154	238
Total number of simple idiots	516	659	1,175
„ epileptic „	190	294	484
Grand totals	706	953	1,659

“ The simple idiots at each interval of age largely preponderated over those whose faculties were destroyed by epilepsy. Females in both sections of idiocy exceed the males, the disparity being greatest with the epileptics—61 females to 39 males. Of the simple idiots, 56 females to 44 males.

“ The Irish authorities, like the Scotch, aim at scientific detail in the manipulation of their statistics. This is in honourable contrast to the feeble attempts in the same direction of the English Commissioners in Lunacy. The various incidents connected with the patients in the district asylums of Ireland are tabulated with care, the facts presented are full of interest and very suggestive. The next statement is not exactly in the form set out in the reports, but the value of the information is unquestionable.

Patients in the District Asylums of Ireland, and the Number of Discharges, Escapes, and Deaths during 1865.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Patients under treatment during 1865	3,129	2,891	6,020
Number thereof discharged during the year	393	387	780
<i>Under the following circumstances—</i>			
Recovered	293	303	596
Improved	59	64	123
Unimproved	41	20	61
Escaped	3	2	5
<i>Deaths—</i>			
From natural causes	203	194	397
„ accidental „	1	2	3

“ Rather less than *one-eighth* of the number of patients under treatment in these institutions during the year were discharged—nearly *one-tenth* quitted as mentally convalescent, 'recovered;' and *one-fiftieth* part as 'improved;' 41 males and 20 females left 'unimproved.' In the same time the deaths were 400, or 6.6 per cent. of the inmates. There is not much numerical divergence revealed in

the table as between male and female, excepting in the section of ‘unimproved,’ as just now shown, the males to the females being as two to one.

“The mere movement of the asylum population is better displayed for a year by the figures of the enumeration below :—

The Movement in the Population of the District Asylums of Ireland in 1865.

	In Asylums 31st December, 1864.	Admitted during 1865.	Discharged, or Died, or Escaped, in 1865.	Remaining in the Asylums 31st December, 1865.
Males	2,465	664	600	2,529
Females	2,264	627	585	2,306
Total	4,729	1,291	1,185	4,835

“It will be found that the numbers at the beginning of the year, *plus* the numbers admitted during the year, constitute the total patients under treatment ; the 6,020 of the previous statement. The 596 recovered, as entered in the same statement, are shown under six intervals of age in the following synopsis :—

Number Admitted to the Irish District Asylums, and the Number Discharged Recovered in the Year 1865.

	Admitted.			Discharged Recovered.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Under 20 years of age.....	69	73	142	36	37	73
20 years of age and under 30	224	217	441	80	102	182
30 " " 40	165	123	288	94	64	158
40 " " 50	98	103	201	47	57	104
50 " " 60	67	70	137	23	25	48
60 " " and upwards	40	41	81	11	11	22
Age not stated	—	—	—	2	7	9
Total	—	—	1,291	—	—	596

“Up to 50 years the discharged convalescent are equal to half the number admitted of the corresponding ages ; after 50 the recoveries rapidly diminish.

“The Irish experience bears out all we have ever met with as to the chance of the lunatic’s recovery, which is *inversely* to the length of time he has been under the attack. The 596 are thus exhaustively accounted for :—

Duration of Disease before Admission.	Patients Recovered during the Year.
Under quarter year	322
Quarter year and less than half year	86
Half year and less than three quarters ...	24
Under one year	25
One year and under two years.....	24
Two years " five "	21
Five years and upwards	13
Period not stated	81

“ The figures tell their own tale plainly enough. They run very parallel to those we calculated for the Scotch asylums.*

“ The relapsed cases form the other side of the picture. The evenness of number between the two sexes is noticeable here, as in some of the other tables :—

Relapsed Cases Admitted into the Irish District Asylums during the Year 1865.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Relapsed cases	128	123	251
Whereof have been in the Asylum—			
Once before	81	75	156
Twice „	20	25	45
Thrice „	14	15	29
Four times before	5	1	6
Five „ „	4	5	9
Six „ „ or oftener	4	2	6

“ The value of the classification under the six heads shown below, we must leave to those who are familiar with the diagnosis of mental pathology to determine.

Form of Insanity of Patients in the Irish District Asylums on 31st December, 1865.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Mania	1,437	1,250	2,687
Melancholia	288	353	641
Dementia	252	250	502
Monomania.....	136	123	259
Imbecility	121	115	236
Idiocy	59	65	124
Mental affections, complicated with epilepsy	236	150	386
Total	2,529	2,306	4,835

“ The larger half comes under ‘ mania,’ and here the males outnumber the females; under ‘ melancholia ’ the sexes occupy the opposite relations; as to ‘ dementia ’ they are equal. Their inequality is most conspicuous in the last division, ‘ mental affections complicated with epilepsy,’ here the males exceed the females by 57 per cent.

Civil Condition of Patients in the Irish District Asylums on 31st December, 1865, so far as known.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Married	491	554	1,045
Single	1,843	1,380	3,223
Widowed	69	212	281

* See Guardian, 1st January.

“Single persons have, according to these figures, three times the chance of being inside the walls of an Irish asylum than is the lot of the married—the single male in greater proportion than the single female. On the other hand, the ‘widow’ has more than three times the risk of the same sad fate that is likely to befall the ‘widower.’

“The Irish blue books set out the *supposed* causes of mental disease under three heads, which, briefly shown for the district asylums on 31st December, stood thus with their proper statistics:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
1. Moral causes	397	569	966
2. Physical causes	677	358	1,035
3. Hereditary predisposition	304	272	576
Unknown causes	1,151	1,107	2,258

“We have also a table of the ‘class of life or occupation’ of the asylum inmates, but as the number of the respective occupations of the general community whence the insane come is not known, the figures are of little worth. Numerically, the highest class in the asylums is the ‘labouring,’ namely, 1,567.

“The educational status of the insane is probably of little relevancy to psychological conditions. The teaching of the next table is to show what is the degree of instruction or ignorance which generally prevails among the Irish people—not much besides.

Educational Condition of Patients in the Irish District Asylums on 31st December, 1865.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Well educated	215	109	324
Can read and write well	466	301	767
“ “ “ indifferently.....	602	406	1,008
“ only “	433	459	892
Cannot read	588	826	1,414
Unascertained	225	205	430

“As touching asylum discipline and management, the subjoined statement of the conduct of the inmates of the district asylums presents a few points for comment; we should imagine from the table that the females are more troublesome than the men—a distinction, however, not peculiar to lunatic asylums:—

Classification according to Behaviour of Patients in the Irish District Asylums on 31st December, 1865.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Number in the asylum on the day	2,529	2,306	4,835
Whereof were—			
Quiet and orderly	1,096	888	1,984
Moderately tranquil	731	616	1,347
Noisy and refractory.....	521	624	1,145
Convalescent	181	178	359

"It should be observed that it is the practice of the Irish authorities to commit 'dangerous lunatics' to gaols. There were 1,193 thus in custody during 1865; of these 367 were sent to asylums under lord lieutenant's warrants, 290 were discharged by the committing magistrate, 25 were otherwise discharged, and 35 died, leaving at the end of the year 493 in gaol—343 males and 150 females. The reports do not afford the means of discriminating the private from the public or poor patients; it seems, however, probable that the former are between 500 and 600. Neither is it possible to exhibit succinctly the expense of maintaining the whole of the insane Irish who are domiciled. The total outlay in the district asylums alone in 1865 was 97,620*l.*; this gives the average annual cost per inmate as 20*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*"

IV.—*Dangers and Decay of the French Race.*

UNDER this title the following notice of M. Jules Simon's recent work, *l'Ouvrier de Huit Ans*, appeared in the *Pall Mall Gazette* on the 31st ult. This work, as well as *Le Travail*, by the same author, will be found among the "Tooke Memorial" books deposited in the library of the Society.

"M. Jules Simon has long been known as, perhaps, the most eminent and the most moderate, as well as one of the most zealous, of the philanthropists and social reformers in France. His works entitled *La Religion Naturelle* and *Le Travail*, secured him a high and well-merited reputation. In the book before us, seizing the occasion of the project of the Government for the reorganisation of the army and the virtual doubling of the severity of the conscription, and with the immediate object of urging the enactment of such a regulation of the factory labour of children as prevails in England, he draws a startling picture of the various influences which are at work to injure and deteriorate the physiological condition of his countrymen, and which seriously menace and, unless remedied, must, he considers, ultimately compromise their political position, if not their national existence. Neither his facts nor his arguments are altogether new; many of them, indeed, have been long before us, but he arrays them in an effective form well adapted to compel attention and excite uneasiness. He shows strong grounds for believing that the race is degenerating physically and increasing slowly; and that if the causes at work to produce these tendencies cannot be checked or counteracted, France must ere long lose her predominance in Europe, and her status among the great peoples of the earth. He recognises fully her present grandeur and her augmenting riches, but he holds with our English poet that—

"Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay.

We do not endorse his statements or his inferences—he knows his subject much better than we can do—we profess simply to give a brief summary of his argument.

"The English and the German race, he says, not only multiply fast, but spread over the whole earth. The French do not colonise, do not emigrate; they increase slowly, and increase only at home. Relatively, compared with every other European race (except perhaps the Spaniards), they are diminishing. The rate of increase of the population is slight beyond example. England doubled her population in the first fifty years of this century; that of France rose only from 27,000,000 to 36,000,000, or 30 per cent. against our 100 per cent. Yet during all this period England was peopling Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the Cape, as well as her own island. France was spreading nowhere outside of her European limits. The increase, though varying, has been on the whole no faster during the last fifteen

years of prosperity and industrial success. In 1854 and 1855 the deaths even exceeded, and largely exceeded, the births. Marriages, too, are on the decrease. There was 1 for every 108 inhabitants in 1784, and only 1 for every 122 in 1862. The births diminish also: between 1829 and 1833 they averaged 4 to a marriage; between 1851 and 1862 scarcely more than 3. But this is not all; the quality as well as the numbers of the people presents a most unsatisfactory appearance, judged at least by the few statistical tests that it is possible exactly to apply. It is true that *life* is lengthening on the average, owing to the advance of medical science and improved hygienic conditions; but *health*, a vigorous sanitary state of the people, is apparently on the decline. Conscripts are by no means so tall as they used to be; it has been found necessary progressively to lower the minimum standard of height for the service. Thus it was in—

	Metre.		Metre.
1701	1'624	1818	1'576
1803	1'598	'60	1'560

“But this is not all. Of the 325,000 young men who annually reach their twenty-first year and become liable to the conscription, not only are 18,000 found to be too short for military service, or below 4 ft. 10 in. (French), *i.e.*, 5 ft. 1 in. (English), the standard for drummers formerly, but 91,000 others are found to be afflicted with various diseases or infirmities which disqualify them for the conscription. That is to say, just one-third of the entire male population are found on reaching manhood to be either too small or too sickly or too feeble to be enlisted in the army.

“The causes to which, in M. Jules Simon's opinion, this unsatisfactory hygienic condition of the French race is to be attributed are three. First, the conscription, which, by withdrawing from the matrimonial market every year from one-third to one-half of the *sound* and healthy young men of France, and rendering marriage impossible to them for nine or twelve years, and often for life, leaves the work of keeping up the population and procreating the future generation in a great measure to the inferior and feebler specimens of the race. Secondly, the increase of manufactures and other species of urban industries, which drains the population away from the rural districts, and concentrates it in cities and in the more crowded parts of cities, where the sanitary conditions of life are never so favourable as in the country. It is found everywhere, not merely in France, that life is longer and securer even among the poorest and scantiest-fed agricultural populations than among the far more highly paid artisans of the towns. Moreover, the conscription empties the rural districts in a double measure, partly because a large proportion of those drawn thence are found fit for service, but also because of discharged soldiers only one-fourth return to country pursuits; the remainder all settle in cities. Thirdly and principally, M. Simon attributes the degeneracy he deplores to the employment of women and children in industrial occupations, particularly in the great factories of Lyons, Rouen, and Mulhausen. The children are employed too early, before their growth is developed, and longer than their strength can bear; and the women are employed too universally and too incessantly, so that they can neither nurse their children nor watch over them, nor bring them into the world with healthy constitutions. On this subject M. Simon brings out some fearful figures, but the figures only prove and fix in hard relief the facts which all reason and experience would lead us to anticipate. It is clear that women who spend ten or twelve hours a day in fatiguing labour at a factory can never be careful mothers or good housewives, or keep comfortable homes, or give wholesome sustenance to their infants. It is notorious that neglected children die fast, and that children handed over to mercenary nurses, especially among the poor, die fastest of all; and it needs no argument to satisfy us that children who have survived these perils of infancy only to be employed from the age of eight or nine years eight or nine hours daily in a factory, can seldom become healthy parents or sagacious and energetic and well-educated citizens. M. Simon states the mortality among the children

of artisans below one year at 20 per cent. in Manchester and Roubaix, 30 per cent at Mulhausen, and 53 at Lyons. In the latter town among the higher ranks the infant mortality does not exceed 10 per cent. Among the peasants in purely rural districts, who live poorly but *en famille*, and can give full attention to their children, the mortality in the first year, according to M. Devilliers, is very small—scarcely more than 5 per cent.; among the artisan children put out to nurse in those districts where this practice is most prevalent, it is said to reach 95 per cent. In fact, nearly all those neglected children die—and are expected to die.

“Such are the formidable facts which M. Simon lays before the world, and he is a careful and conscientious author. He appears to have had two objects in writing his book—the first, to obtain a law limiting the labour of children of tender age to five or six hours daily; the second, to point out the mischief to be apprehended by an enactment—such as that proposed by the new scheme for the reorganisation of the French army—which would render, not half as now, but the whole of the *sound* male adults of France disqualified for marriage till their twenty-sixth or twenty-ninth year. The moderation of M. Simon’s recommendations, and the candour with which he recognises the practical difficulties of the question, are remarkable, and the work will well repay a studious perusal.”

V.—*The British Leather Trade.*

FROM the *Manchester Guardian*:—

“It was stated at a public dinner, in London, on Thursday night, that the transactions of the various leather trades all over the kingdom are estimated to be represented by from 15,000,000*l.* to 20,000,000*l.* a year in the aggregate. There are upwards of a quarter of a million of persons engaged in making and selling boots and shoes in the kingdom, and about 16,000,000*l.* is calculated to be expended in that branch of the trade alone. There are between 200 and 300 leather sellers’ shops in London alone, and there are about 500 tanneries in various parts of the kingdom, employing about 400,000 persons directly or indirectly, and preparing and dressing at least 80,000 tons of leather, the consumption keeping pace with the progress of industry. Of hides 270,640 cwt. (dry) and 785,999 (wet) were imported in the last year, and 8,448,670 lbs. of tanned hides. About 300,000 tons of indigenous oak bark are consumed annually, besides importations, which in 1866 amounted to upwards of 543,000 tons, and in the same year 218,920 cwt. of hides were exported.”

MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

No. I.—ENGLAND AND WALES.

MARRIAGES IN THE QUARTER ENDED 31ST DECEMBER, 1866,
AND BIRTHS AND DEATHS IN THE QUARTER
ENDED 31ST MARCH, 1867.

The *Registers* of the UNITED KINGDOM show that the *births* of 273,584 children, and the *deaths* of 189,089 persons of both sexes, were registered in the three months ending on *March* 31st.

The marriages of the United Kingdom in the quarter ending *December* 31st, 1866, were 70,795.

The death-rate of the United Kingdom differs little from that prevailing in England and Wales. The several facts concerning the other divisions of the kingdom are set forth in the reports of the Registrar-General of Scotland and the Registrar-General of Ireland.

The resident population of England, Scotland, and Ireland, in the middle of 1867, is estimated at about 30,125,248. The corrected death-rate of the quarter is 2·546 per cent.

ENGLAND :—MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, and DEATHS, returned in the Years
1861-67, and in the QUARTERS of those Years.

Calendar YEARS, 1861-67 :—Numbers.

Years	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
Marriages No.	—	187,519	185,474	180,387	173,510	164,030	163,706
Births	—	753,188	748,069	740,275	727,417	712,684	696,406
Deaths	—	500,938	490,909	495,531	473,837	436,566	435,114

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1861-67.

(I.) MARRIAGES :—Numbers.

Qrs. ended last day of	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
MarchNo.	—	37,576	36,807	37,988	35,528	33,953	33,274
June ,	—	48,523	45,827	44,599	44,146	40,853	42,012
Septmbr. ,	—	46,196	45,852	44,675	41,932	40,600	39,884
Decmbr. ,	—	55,224	56,988	53,125	51,904	48,624	48,536

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1861-67.

(II.) BIRTHS :—*Numbers.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
MarchNo.	195,455	196,737	194,130	192,947	186,341	181,990	172,933
June ,,	—	192,459	192,988	188,835	189,340	185,554	184,820
Septmbr. ,,	—	178,982	181,941	181,015	173,439	172,709	172,033
Decmbr. ,,	—	185,010	179,010	177,478	178,297	172,431	166,620

(III.) DEATHS :—*Numbers.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
MarchNo.	134,254	138,233	140,410	142,977	128,096	122,019	121,215
June ,,	—	128,692	115,892	116,880	118,121	107,392	107,558
Septmbr. ,,	—	116,826	113,362	112,223	112,504	92,381	101,232
Decmbr. ,,	—	117,187	121,245	123,451	115,116	114,774	105,109

England.—This Return comprises the BIRTHS and DEATHS registered by 2,200 registrars in all the districts of England during the quarter that ended on March 31st, 1867; and the MARRIAGES in 12,929 churches or chapels, about 5,576 registered places of worship unconnected with the Established Church, and 641 Superintendent Registrars' offices, in the quarter that ended on December 31st, 1866.

The returns are on the whole satisfactory. The marriages and the births are above the average numbers. The death-rate is exactly the average of the season, but it is lower than it was in any of the three previous winters. Had it not been for the intense cold weather in January, which proved fatal to many old people, and for epidemics of whooping-cough, small-pox, and measles, the results would have been still more favourable. Cholera was only epidemic in Durham, and there it has subsided. Prices are high, and the scarcity of potatoes is likely again to give rise to scurvy unless other antiscorbutics are resorted to.

MARRIAGES.—In the last three months of 1866 the number of persons married was 110,448. The marriages were 55,224, and were less by 1,764 than in the corresponding period of the previous year. In London the number of marriages was 9,112 against 9,738 in the December quarter of 1865; in the West Midland counties 6,370 against 6,981; in Yorkshire 6,114 against 6,285; in the Northern counties 3,004 against 3,284. In the counties of the cotton manufacture the marriages maintained their activity better, the number there having been 8,656 against 8,583.

During the last three years the marriage-rate has been unusually and persistently high; and this statement holds equally good in respect to the last quarter of 1866, though in it the marriage-rate (2·058) was not so high as in the same period of 1865, when it was 2·146, which proportion represents *persons married* to a hundred of the whole population. The average rate of the December quarter in the ten years 1857-66 is 1·987.

BIRTHS.—The number of children born in the winter quarter (January, February, March) of the present year was 195,455 against 196,737 in the winter of last year. In London the births in three March quarters (1865-67) were successively 27,824, 28,407, and 29,501, showing a constant increase. In Yorkshire they were in the same times 20,740, 20,862, and 20,462, showing a decrease.

ENGLAND:—*Annual Rates per Cent. of PERSONS MARRIED, BIRTHS, and DEATHS, during the Years 1861-67, and the QUARTERS of those Years.*

Calendar YEARS, 1861-67:—General Percentage Results.

YEARS	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
Estmtd. Popln. of England <i>in thousands</i> in middle of each Year....	21,430	—	21,210	20,991	20,772	20,554	20,336	20,119
Persons Mar- ried Perct. }	—	1·687	1·768	1·768	1·736	1·688	1·614	1·628
<i>Births</i> ,	—	3·493	3·551	3·564	3·564	3·539	3·504	3·461
<i>Deaths</i> ,	—	2·255	2·362	2·339	2·386	2·305	2·147	2·163

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1861-67

(I.) PERSONS MARRIED :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March....Per ct.	—	1·400	1·442	1·428	1·472	1·408	1·360	1·346
June..... ,	—	1·718	1·838	1·754	1·724	1·726	1·614	1·678
Septmbr. ,	—	1·631	1·726	1·732	1·704	1·616	1·582	1·570
Decmbr. ,	—	1·987	2·058	2·146	2·022	1·996	1·890	1·906

(II.) BIRTHS :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March....Per ct.	3·713	3·663	3·776	3·765	3·740	3·691	3·644	3·500
June ,	—	3·619	3·644	3·692	3·651	3·700	3·665	3·690
Septmbr. ,	—	3·350	3·344	3·434	3·453	3·343	3·365	3·388
Decmbr. ,	—	3·340	3·447	3·370	3·376	3·428	3·350	3·272

(III.) DEATHS :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March....Per ct.	2·551	2·551	2·653	2·723	2·772	2·538	2·443	2·453
June..... ,	—	2·218	2·437	2·217	2·260	2·308	2·121	2·147
Septmbr. ,	—	2·031	2·182	2·140	2·141	2·169	1·800	1·994
Decmbr. ,	—	2·224	2·184	2·283	2·349	2·213	2·230	2·064

The annual birth-rate of last quarter was 3·713 per cent. against an average of ten winter quarters of 3·663.

By comparing the birth-rates of certain large towns it is found that the highest was in Leeds, where the rate reached 4·345 per cent. In Glasgow it was 4·262; in Sheffield 4·183; in Liverpool 4·137; in Birmingham 4·068; in Bristol 3·978; in London 3·841; in Edinburgh 3·645.

INCREASE OF POPULATION.—The deaths in the March quarter were 134,254, and the births, as has been stated, were 195,455. These numbers show a balance, amounting to 61,201, which represents natural increase of population.

This result is affected by the daily flow of emigrants.* Of these the total number from all ports in the United Kingdom, where emigration officers are stationed, was 26,753 in the quarter ended 31st March. Distinguishing the emigrants in respect to origin, this number consisted of about 8,000 English, 1,200 Scotch, 14,000 Irish, 3,000 foreigners. There went to the United States nearly 7,000 English, 900 Scotch, 13,000 Irish. 2,000 persons of various origin went to the Australian Colonies, less than 100 to British North America.

In the March quarter of the three years 1865-66-67 the total emigration was 27,513, 39,672, and 26,753.

PRICES, PAUPERISM, AND THE WEATHER.—Wheat fell from 56s. 8d. per quarter, its price in the last three months of 1866, to 45s. 6d. in the first quarter of the present year. The same price ruled in the same season of last year. Beef, as sold by the carcase at Leadenhall and Newgate Markets was from 4½d. per lb. for inferior quality to 7d. for superior quality. The same prices have ruled for the last six months. Mutton was decidedly cheaper than it had been for some time previously. The worse and better qualities were 5d. and 7½d. But potatoes were very dear; the best at Waterside Market, Southwark, having ranged from 115s. to 160s. per ton. The mean price was 137s. 6d.; that of the March quarter in last year was 72s. 6d.

Pauperism exhibits a marked increase, as is shown in the following average numbers of persons relieved on the last day of each week in three winter quarters:—

Quarter ending 31st March.	In-door.	Out-door.
1865.....	142,329	813,371
'66.....	139,546	759,402
'67.....	147,620	832,364

The month of January opened with a severe frost which continued till the 5th, and the defect of temperature was great, particularly on the 4th. The thermometer fell to zero at many places, and below that point at others. Snow fell frequently all over the country, and in such amount that traffic by road or railway was rendered difficult, and in some places was quite suspended. This severity of weather was succeeded by a sudden thaw, and by heavy gales of wind from the west and south-west. The snow was cleared away rapidly, and its sudden melting caused rivers to overflow their banks in many parts of the country. From January 6th to 10th the average excess of daily temperature above the average was 7 degrees. On the 11th another period of frost set in and continued till January 22nd, during which there were several very heavy falls of snow, especially in the northern parts of the kingdom. Cases were reported of persons who perished in the snow. The average daily deficiency of temperature on those twelve

* Return with which the Registrar-General has been favoured by the Emigration Commissioners: Of 26,753 emigrants the origin was undistinguished in 1,086 cases which have been distributed by calculation.

days was nearly 10 degrees. On the morning of the 23rd a sudden change took place; the temperature was no less than 20 degrees higher than that of the preceding day, and a period of warmth almost unprecedented for the season commenced, which lasted for thirty-five days. The average excess of temperature during this period was 7 degrees daily, and it is necessary to go back as far as 1779 for a period of higher temperature and of equally prolonged duration. The melting of the snow and heavy falls of rain produced inundations which were extensive in some parts of Yorkshire and Lincolnshire. From February 27th to the end of March the weather, except on a few days, was cold and wintry; snow and sleet were frequent all over the country. In the first three weeks of March, the average daily defect of temperature at Greenwich was nearly 7 degrees. January and March will be distinguished in meteorology for their severe frosts and snow-falls, February by its high temperature, and the whole quarter by an unusual succession of heavy gales. In February the excess of rain and the floods impeded agricultural operations, while in March vegetation was checked and growing crops damaged by the protracted wintry character of the season.

CONSOLS, PROVISIONS, PAUPERISM, and TEMPERATURE in each of the
Nine QUARTERS ended 31st March, 1867.

1	2	3	4		5	6	7		8	9
Quarters ending	Average Price of Consols (for Money).	Average Price of Wheat per Quarter in England and Wales.	Average Prices of Meat per lb. at Leadenhall and Newgate Markets (by the Carcase), with the <i>Mean</i> Prices.		Average Prices of Potatoes (York Regents) per Ton at Waterside Market, Southwark.	Pauperism.		Mean Tem- pera- ture.		
						Quarterly Average of the Number of Paupers relieved on the <i>last day</i> of each week.				
			Beef.	Mutton.		In-door.	Out-door.			
1865	£	s. d.	d. d. d.	d. d. d.	s. s. s.					
31 Mar.	89 $\frac{3}{8}$	38 4	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ —7 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ —7 $\frac{1}{4}$ 6 $\frac{1}{4}$	85—97 91	142,329	813,371	36 \cdot 5		
30 June	90 $\frac{6}{8}$	40 6	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ —6 $\frac{3}{4}$ 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	6 $\frac{1}{4}$ —8 $\frac{1}{2}$ 7 $\frac{3}{8}$	90—115 102	125,846	776,016	56 \cdot 2		
30 Sept.	89 $\frac{6}{8}$	43 3	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ —7 5 $\frac{3}{4}$	6 $\frac{1}{4}$ —8 $\frac{3}{4}$ 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	65—100 85	117,172	719,589	62 \cdot 5		
31 Dec.	88 $\frac{4}{8}$	44 10	4 $\frac{1}{4}$ —7 5 $\frac{5}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ —8 $\frac{1}{4}$ 6 $\frac{7}{8}$	60—90 75	129,036	725,259	46 \cdot 0		
1866										
31 Mar.	87	45 6	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ —6 $\frac{3}{4}$ 5 $\frac{5}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ —7 $\frac{3}{4}$ 6 $\frac{5}{8}$	55—90 72	139,546	759,402	41 \cdot 2		
30 June	86 $\frac{4}{8}$	46 6	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ —7 5 $\frac{7}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ —8 $\frac{1}{2}$ 7	60—95 77	123,657	734,139	53 \cdot 0		
30 Sept.	88 $\frac{3}{8}$	51 —	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ —7 $\frac{1}{4}$ 6 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ —8 $\frac{1}{4}$ 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	75—120 97	120,955	717,553	58 \cdot 9		
31 Dec.	89 $\frac{4}{8}$	56 8	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ —7 5 $\frac{7}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{4}$ —7 $\frac{1}{2}$ 6 $\frac{3}{8}$	85—130 107	133,979	734,312	46 \cdot 2		
1867										
31 Mar.	90 $\frac{7}{8}$	45 6	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ —7 5 $\frac{7}{8}$	5—7 $\frac{1}{4}$ 6 $\frac{1}{8}$	115—160 137	147,620	832,364	38 \cdot 9		

At Greenwich the mean temperature of January was 34 $^{\circ}$ ·2; of February 44 $^{\circ}$ ·7

of March 37°·7; of the quarter 38°·9. The rain-fall in the three months was 6·3 inches, which is an inch and a half above the average.

DEATHS; AND THE STATE OF THE PUBLIC HEALTH.—The deaths in the three months that ended in March amounted to 134,254; and the annual rate of mortality was nearly 26 per 1,000 for the winter, which is now in England the most fatal of the four seasons. The death-rate was 27 in the town, 23 in the country districts. In the thirteen great towns of the United Kingdom the winter death-rate was 29. Hull had the lowest rate, 25; Newcastle-on-Tyne the highest, 37. It may be desirable to inquire into the causes of the singular insalubrity of this city of the Tyne, for which nature has done so much, and for which the municipal authorities appear to be still incapable of procuring the conditions of healthy existence. If coals are dear that is scarcely a disadvantage to Newcastle, which supplies the country with that article and obtains its artificial heat at much cheaper rates than London. The dwellings, the water supply, the drainage, the scavenging, the disinfection of the sick, the habits of the people, demand effectual measures of reform; and then Newcastle, now classed among the great towns of the kingdom, will no longer be the worst hot-bed of epidemics amongst them.

In one parish of Newcastle there are seventeen unpaved streets, together with a large number of back lanes: in the cellars or underground kitchens stood seven or eight inches of water and liquid filth; the upstairs rooms were all occupied by four and five families in each house. The Registrar of Westgate, after noticing that the mortality has been very great, says that “it would have been much worse but for the strenuous exertions of the public health committee,” who collected information, and instituted house-to-house visitation.

Thirty-five persons, including 22 males and 13 females, died of cholera, 19 of diarrhoea, in the sub-district of St. Nicholas, Durham; and there the epidemic had apparently subsided at the end of the quarter.

The deaths by two terrible colliery explosions appear in the returns; the one at the Oaks Colliery, where the deaths of 320 colliers were registered, while a number not exceeding 50 still remain unregistered; at Talk-o'-the Hill Colliery, the other, raised the deaths of the district up to 155, the births remaining only 13.

Average Annual Rate of Mortality to 1,000 of the Population in the Eleven Divisions of England in the Ten Years 1851-60; in the Year 1866; in the Winter, Spring, Summer, and Autumn Quarters of 1866; and in the Winter Quarter of 1867.

Divisions.	Average Annual Rate of Mortality to 1,000 Living in						
	Ten Years, 1851-60.	1866.					1867.
		Year.	Winter Quarter.	Spring Quarter.	Summer Quarter.	Autumn Quarter.	Autumn Quarter.
I. London	23·63	26·30	26·66	25·29	28·86	24·38	26·78
II. South-Eastern counties ...	19·55	19·42	21·85	19·81	18·11	17·90	21·87
III. South Midland „ ...	20·44	20·14	22·85	21·03	17·62	19·07	24·02
IV. Eastern counties	20·58	20·13	23·19	21·61	18·10	17·62	22·27
V. South-Western counties ...	20·01	20·38	23·85	21·86	17·30	18·52	23·83
VI. West Midland „ ...	22·35	22·01	26·54	24·16	17·48	19·84	24·20
VII. North Midland „	21·10	20·77	24·01	22·58	17·58	18·89	23·44
VIII. North-Western „ ...	25·51	29·21	33·84	28·74	27·31	26·96	29·44
IX. Yorkshire	23·09	25·63	29·60	27·59	22·03	23·28	26·58
X. Northern counties	21·99	23·90	24·43	23·95	21·95	25·27	27·23
XI. Monmouthshire and Wales	21·28	22·79	23·92	23·45	22·31	21·49	24·19

Note.—The above mortality for the year 1866 is the mean of the quarterly rates.

In the south-eastern division the mortality was at the rate of 22 per 1,000; in the south midland, 24. The deaths of Southampton have fallen from 330 to 216 on the last winter; and the mitigation of the heavy mortality hitherto prevailing in this important town is ascribed to the alteration of the drainage under the supervision of the sanitary committee. Diphtheria was fatal to seven persons in the Soham sub-district of Newmarket. Oxford has been much healthier than Cambridge during the quarter; the deaths having been 86 in the Oxford district, 183 in the Cambridge district. The Oxford workhouse is in Headington, but the mortality of the two districts together is at the annual rate of 21, while that of Cambridge is 28. No explanation is given of the ill-health of Cambridge. The health had improved in both places in the decenniad 1851-60; and it is very desirable that Cambridge should not be deprived of the hygienic improvements on which vigour as well as health depends. Since the epidemic of 1863 Cambridge instead of improving has retrograded.

ANNUAL RATE of MORTALITY *per Cent.* in TOWN and COUNTRY DISTRICTS
of ENGLAND in each Quarter of the Years 1867-65.

	Area in Statute Acres.	Population Enumerated.	Quarters ending	Annual Rate of Mortality per Cent. in each Quarter of the Years			
		1861.		1867.	Mean 57-66.	1866.	1865.
In 142 Districts, and 56 Sub-districts, comprising the Chief Towns	3,287,151	10,930,841	March ..	2·732	2·738	2·967	2·883
			June	—	2·357	2·641	2·346
			Sept.	—	2·262	2·515	2·388
			Dec.	—	2·477	2·432	2·565
			Year	—	2·459	2·639	2·546
In the remaining Districts and Sub- districts of Eng- land and Wales, comprising chiefly Small Towns and Country Parishes }	34,037,732	9,135,383	Year	—	2·010	2·010	2·081
			March ..	2·315	2·326	2·252	2·522
			June	—	2·050	2·170	2·055
			Sept. ...	—	1·750	1·755	1·824
			Dec.	—	1·916	1·863	1·923

Note.—The three months, January, February, March, contain 90, in leap year 91 days; the three months, April, May, June, 91 days; each of the last two quarters of the year 92 days. For this inequality a correction has been made in the calculations, also for the difference between 365 and 365·25 days, and 366 and 365·25 days in leap year.

The mortality of the eastern counties was at the rate of 22 in 1,000, or one less than it was in the previous winter. Scarletina had disappeared in South Yarmouth; and the decline in the mortality of Norwich is remarkable: in the three last winters the deaths there were 564, 576, and 436.

The mortality of the south-western counties was at the rate of 24 per 1,000; precisely the same as it was in the previous winter. Emigration from Cornwall is still going on, and at Redruth unusual distress has arisen from the depressed state of mining.

Eight deaths of men belonging to a Swedish brig, and 11 deaths of men belonging to a Norwegian barque were registered in Cornwall, and may be held with others to be some set off against the unregistered loss of English lives on foreign strands.

The mortality in the west midland counties was 24; in the north midland counties, 23; in both below the rates of the previous winter. Wolverhampton with the surrounding districts is healthier than it was; but it is still not out of danger, and yet we are told deprives itself of the services of a health officer.

In the north-western division, Lancashire and Cheshire, the mortality was 29 (per 1,000 per annum is always understood); in Yorkshire 27, still high, but not so high as in the previous winter. We have a right to expect that these great and aspiring counties will no longer remain the unhealthiest communities in the United Kingdom. The authorities know what is required, and can do it.

The two northern counties of Durham and Northumberland are unhealthier than they ever were; and the mortality of the winter quarter of the northern division was 27. The mortality has been exceptionally high in the Morpeth district during the last three months; and the deaths were 208. All the exertions of the Board of Health are required in the area over which its jurisdiction extends; and for the future no exertions should be spared to prevent the invasion of epidemics.

Wales experienced a mortality at the rate of 24 annually to 1,000 living.

POPULATION; BIRTHS, DEATHS; MEAN TEMPERATURE *and* RAINFALL in last Winter Quarter, in Thirteen Large Towns.

Cities, &c.	Estimated Population in the Middle of the Year 1867.	Births in 13 Weeks ending 30th Mar., 1867.	Deaths in 13 Weeks ending 30th Mar., 1867.	Annual Rate to 1,000 Living during the 13 Weeks ending 30th March, 1867.		Mean Temperature in 13 Weeks ending 30th March, 1867.	Rainfall in Inches in 13 Weeks ending 30th Mar., 1867.
				Births.	Deaths.		
Total of 13 large towns....	6,187,764	59,951	44,528	38·89	28·88	37·7	7·4
London	3,082,372	29,501	20,467	38·41	26·78	38·5	6·3
Bristol (city)	165,572	1,641	1,052	39·78	25·50	38·9	12·5
Birmingham (borough)...	343,948	3,486	2,172	40·68	25·35	37·9	10·0
Liverpool (borough)	492,439	5,076	4,089	41·37	33·33	38·3	4·9
Manchester (city)	362,823	3,364	3,056	37·21	33·81	37·6	6·2
Salford (borough)	115,013	1,193	899	41·63	31·37	36·3	7·7
Sheffield (borough)	225,199	2,347	1,532	41·83	27·30	37·1	9·0
Leeds (borough).....	232,428	2,516	1,700	43·45	29·36	37·8	6·0
Hull (borough) ..	106,740	1,059	671	39·82	25·23	—	—
Newcastle - on - Tyne } (borough)	124,960	1,253	1,155	40·25	37·10	37·9	3·2
Edinburgh (city)	176,081	1,599	1,296	36·45	29·54	37·2	5·6
Glasgow (city)	440,979	4,683	3,686	42·62	33·55	36·3	9·3
Dublin (city and some } suburbs)	319,210	2,233	2,753	28·08	34·62	39·4	8·4

ENGLAND:—MARRIAGES *Registered in Quarters ended 31st December, 1866-64; and BIRTHS and DEATHS in Quarters ended 31st March, 1867-65.*

1 DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	2 AREA in Statute Acres.	3 POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	4 5 6 MARRIAGES in Quarters ended 31st December.		
			'66.	'65.	'64.
			No.	No.	No.
ENGLD. & WALES....Totals	37,324,883	20,066,224	55,224	56,988	53,125
I. London	77,997	2,803,989	9,112	9,738	8,711
II. South-Eastern	4,065,935	1,847,661	4,965	4,930	4,625
III. South Midland	3,201,290	1,295,515	3,370	3,325	3,252
IV. Eastern	3,214,099	1,142,562	3,125	3,132	3,148
V. South-Western	4,993,660	1,835,714	3,714	3,961	3,868
VI. West Midland	3,865,332	2,436,568	6,370	6,981	6,568
VII. North Midland	3,540,797	1,288,928	3,310	3,217	3,084
VIII. North-Western	2,000,227	2,935,540	8,656	8,583	7,253
IX. Yorkshire	3,654,636	2,015,541	6,114	6,285	6,027
X. Northern	3,492,322	1,151,372	3,004	3,284	3,173
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	5,218,588	1,312,834	3,484	3,552	3,416

7 DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	8 9 10 BIRTHS in Quarters ended 31st March.			11 12 13 DEATHS in Quarters ended 31st March.		
	'67.	'66.	'65.	'67.	'66.	'65.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
ENGLD. & WALES....Totals	195,455	196,737	194,130	134,254	138,233	140,410
I. London	29,501	28,407	27,824	20,467	20,029	20,815
II. South-Eastern	17,447	16,982	16,957	10,729	10,585	11,621
III. South Midland	12,056	11,880	11,916	7,894	7,473	8,281
IV. Eastern	10,060	10,109	10,252	6,366	7,614	6,955
V. South-Western	15,230	15,987	15,886	10,899	10,891	11,473
VI. West Midland	24,407	24,777	24,105	15,699	16,995	17,155
VII. North Midland	11,734	11,894	11,863	7,711	7,850	8,365
VIII. North-Western	30,277	30,429	29,998	23,468	26,539	23,309
IX. Yorkshire	20,462	20,862	20,740	14,165	15,584	14,556
X. Northern	12,585	12,908	12,441	8,550	7,542	7,958
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	11,696	12,502	12,148	8,306	8,131	9,922

REMARKS ON THE WEATHER

DURING THE QUARTER ENDING 31ST MARCH, 1867.

By JAMES GLAISHER, ESQ., F.R.S., &c., *Secretary of the Meteorological Society.*

The month of January opened with a low temperature and severe frost; till the 5th day the deficiency of temperature was nearly 15° daily. On the 4th day this defect was as large as 23° , and the temperature was as low as zero at many places, and below zero at several. Snow fell frequently all over the country to an unusual amount, and rendered communication both by ordinary roads and by railroads difficult, and in some places traffic was wholly suspended. This unusually severe weather was succeeded by a sudden thaw, and a succession of heavy gales of wind from the west and south-west. The great change in the temperature broke up the frost, and cleared away the snow very rapidly, the sudden melting of which caused rivers to overflow in many parts of the country. From January 6th to the 10th days the average excess of daily temperature amounted to 7° .

On the 11th day another frosty period set in, and extended to the 22nd day; during this period there were several very heavy falls of snow, particularly in the northern parts of the kingdom, where several persons perished in the snow, being overtaken by it, and frozen to death. The deficiency of temperature for these 12 days was on the average $9\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ daily.

On the morning of the 23rd day the weather underwent a rapid change; the mean temperature of this day was no less than 20° of higher temperature than that of the preceding day, thus introducing a period of almost unparalleled warm weather of the extraordinary duration of 35 days, or till February 26th. The average excess of temperature during this period was 7° daily, and we must go back as far as 1779, or 88 years, for an analogous period of the same length of higher temperature. In the year 1794 and 1850 the same temperature was nearly experienced. The melting of the snow at the beginning of this period, together with the heavy falls of rain, caused inundations in various places, and especially in some parts of Yorkshire and Lincolnshire.

From February 27th to the end of the quarter, with the exception of the five days from March 23rd to 27th, the weather was always cold and of a wintry character; there were frequent falls of snow and sleet up to a very late period in the month all over the country. Till March 22nd the deficiency of temperature averaged $6\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ daily.

The months of January and March will be remembered for their severe frosts and heavy falls of snow, that of February for its high temperature, and the whole quarter for a very unusual succession of high winds and gales.

The months of February and March were not favourable for agricultural operations; in the former month, owing to frequent rain and the flooded state of the land, and in the latter month spring farmwork was frequently interrupted by its protracted wintry character, damaging growing crops and checking vegetation.

The mean temperature of January was $34^{\circ}\cdot 2$, being 2° below the average of the preceding 96 years, $4^{\circ}\cdot 1$ below the average of the preceding 26 years, and lower than that of any of the preceding 5 years.

The mean temperature of February was $44^{\circ}\cdot 7$, being $6^{\circ}\cdot 4$ higher than the average of the preceding 96 years, 6° above the average of the preceding 26 years, and higher than that of any year since 1779, when it was $45^{\circ}\cdot 3$. In 1794 and 1850 the same mean value ($44^{\circ}\cdot 7$) was obtained.

The mean temperature of March was $37^{\circ}7$, being $3^{\circ}3$ below the average of preceding 96 years, 4° below the average of the preceding 26 years, and $2^{\circ}8$ lower than that of last year.

The mean high day temperatures were respectively $3^{\circ}8$ and $5^{\circ}4$ below their averages in January and March, and $5^{\circ}8$ above the average in February.

The mean low night temperatures were below their respective averages in January and March to the amounts of $5^{\circ}2$ and $2^{\circ}2$, and in February 6° above the average.

Therefore in January and March both the days and nights were cold, whilst in February they were very warm.

The daily ranges of temperature were $1^{\circ}3$ greater in January, $0^{\circ}2$ less in February, and $3^{\circ}1$ less in March.

The fall of rain was 1.1 in. above the average in January, was but slightly different in February, and again above the average in March to the amount of 0.7 in.

The mean temperature of the air at Greenwich in the three months ending February, constituting the three winter months, was $40^{\circ}6$, being $1^{\circ}4$ above the average of the preceding 26 years.

1867. Months.		Temperature of									Elastic Force of Vapour.		Weight of Vapour in a Cubic Foot of Air.	
		Air.			Evaporation.		Dew Point.		Air— Daily Range.					
		Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 96 Years.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.				
Jan. ...	34.2	-2.0	-4.1	32.6	-4.4	29.7	-5.4	11.0	+1.3	34.8	In. .165	-0.38	2.0	-0.4
Feb. ...	44.7	+6.4	+6.0	42.5	+5.4	40.0	+5.4	11.2	-0.2	44.2	.247	+0.44	2.8	+0.4
March...	37.7	-3.3	-4.0	35.5	-3.9	32.5	-3.9	11.5	-3.1	39.6	.184	-0.33	2.1	-0.4
Mean ...	38.9	+0.4	-0.7	36.9	-1.0	34.1	-1.3	11.2	-0.7	39.5	.199	+0.09	2.3	-0.1

1867. Months.		Degree of Humidity.		Reading of Barometer.		Weight of a Cubic Foot of Air.		Rain.		Daily Hori- zontal Move- ment of the Air.	Reading of Thermometer on Grass.				
		Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Amnt.	Diff. from Aver- age of 52 Years.		Number of Nights it was			Low- est Read- ing at Night.	High- est Read- ing at Night.
											At or below 30°.	Be- tween 30° and 40°.	Above 40°.		
Jan. ...	83	- 5	In. 29.520	-235	Gr. 554	0	In. 2.8	+1.1	Miles. 346	18	10	3	5.2	44.0	
Feb. ..	84	- 1	29.911	+123	549	- 4	1.2	-0.3	344	2	19	7	29.1	44.7	
March...	82	0	29.624	-123	552	+ 2	2.3	+0.7	329	18	10	3	18.5	44.2	
Mean ...	83	- 2	29.678	-078	552	- 1	Sum 6.3	Sum +1.5	Mean 340	Sum 38	Sum 39	Sum 13	Lowest 5.2	Highest 44.7	

Note.—In reading this table it will be borne in mind that the sign (—) minus signifies below the average, and that the sign (+) plus signifies above the average.

ENGLAND:—*Meteorological Table, Quarter ended 31st March, 1867.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
NAMES OF STATIONS.	Mean Pressure of Dry Air reduced to the Level of the Sea.	Highest Reading of the Thermo- meter.	Lowest Reading of the Thermo- meter.	Range of Tem- perature in the Quarter.	Mean Monthly Range of Tem- perature.	Mean Daily Range of Tem- perature.	Mean Tem- perature of the Air.	Mean Degree of Hu- midity.
	in.	°	°	°	°	°	°	
Guernsey	29·631	56·5	23·0	33·5	25·2	8·3	42·7	87
Barnstaple	29·622	59·5	8·0	51·5	33·2	11·5	—	—
Osborne	29·642	60·8	13·2	47·6	32·8	11·6	40·1	87
Royal Observatory	29·666	59·1	6·0	53·1	35·7	11·2	38·9	83
Royston	29·664	58·0	16·1	41·9	30·9	11·5	38·4	88
Lampeter	29·630	58·2	0·0	58·2	38·3	12·6	38·2	88
Norwich	29·618	57·0	13·0	44·0	34·1	10·6	38·4	91
Belvoir Castle ...	29·542	58·5	9·0	49·5	32·2	15·0	38·0	93
Liverpool	—	58·7	20·3	38·4	31·2	9·4	38·8	86
Stonyhurst	29·594	59·4	9·2	46·5	35·4	10·8	37·4	86
North Shields ...	29·654	65·4	14·0	39·0	31·7	8·7	36·7	87

10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
NAMES OF STATIONS.	WIND.					Mean Amount of Cloud.	RAIN.	
	Mean estimated Strength.	Relative Proportion of					Number of Days on which it fell.	Amount collected.
		N.	E.	S.	W.			
								in.
Guernsey	1·7	7	6	8	9	6·3	59	14·1
Barnstaple	1·3	6	9	7	8	4·4	—	—
Osborne	0·6	7	6	7	10	7·0	42	8·8
Royal Observatory	0·8	7	7	7	9	7·6	51	6·3
Royston	—	7	5	8	10	7·3	45	5·9
Lampeter	1·0	6	9	8	7	7·0	45	11·4
Norwich	—	8	5	9	8	—	28	7·3
Belvoir Castle ...	1·8	7	4	11	8	6·7	50	5·0
Liverpool	1·5	5	10	8	7	6·7	—	—
Stonyhurst	0·8	8	9	5	8	7·4	53	7·5
North Shields ...	1·7	7	7	7	9	5·6	57	6·1

No. II.—SCOTLAND.

MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS IN THE QUARTER
ENDED 31ST MARCH, 1867.

Scotland, for the purposes of registration, is divided into 1,016 districts; and this return comprises the BIRTHS, DEATHS, and MARRIAGES registered in these during the quarter ending 31st March, 1867. From these it would appear that births, deaths, and marriages have been above the average of the corresponding quarter of the ten previous years.

BIRTHS.—27,969 births were registered in Scotland during the first quarter of the year 1867, being in the annual proportion of 352 births in every 10,000 persons of the estimated population. This is slightly above the average birth-rate of the quarter during the ten previous years (see Table III), but is greatly below that of the years 1864, 1865, and 1866, the birth-rate during the first quarter of 1866 having been at the rate of 366 births in every 10,000 persons. It is worthy of note that the English birth-rate during the first quarter of this year exhibited the same fluctuation, in that it was lower than the average of the three previous years, but was higher than the average of the ten previous years. Thus, in England the births during the first quarter of 1867 amounted to 195,455, indicating an annual proportion of 371 births in every 10,000 persons—a ten-years' average of the quarter giving a proportion of 366 births, whereas in that of 1866 the proportion was 377 births in a like population.

TABLE I.—*Proportion of Illegitimate in every Hundred Births in the Divisions and Counties of Scotland, during the Quarter ending 31st March, 1867.*

Divisions.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.
SCOTLAND	9·9						
Northern	5·5	Shetland	4·0	Forfar	11·2	Lanark	9·1
North-Western	6·2	Orkney	2·7	Perth	10·1	Linlithgow .	8·6
North-Eastern	16·1	Caithness ...	8·2	Fife	7·5	Edinburgh .	8·7
East Midland..	9·8	Sutherland...	6·5	Kinross	12·1	Haddington	6·8
West Midland.	8·0	Ross and } Cromarty }	5·1	Clackman- } nan	9·2	Berwick	13·3
South-Western	8·8	Inverness ...	7·2	Stirling	8·0	Peebles	7·7
South-Eastern.	8·9	Nairn	9·1	Dumbarton ..	7·5	Selkirk	9·9
Southern	15·8	Elgin	11·0	Argyll	8·1	Roxburgh ..	13·1
		Banff	17·9	Bute	10·2	Dumfries ...	14·2
		Aberdeen ...	16·8	Renfrew	6·6	Kirkcud- } bright .. }	15·8
		Kincardine...	15·8	Ayr	10·1	Wigtown ...	22·3

The town and rural districts exhibited the usual difference in the proportion of their births. Thus, in the 126 town districts (which embrace the towns which in 1861 had 3,000 inhabitants and upwards), 16,751 births were registered; while in the 890 rural districts (embracing the remainder of the population of Scotland), only 12,218 births occurred; thus indicating an annual proportion of 389 births in

every 10,000 persons in the town districts, but only 309 births in a like population in the rural districts. (See Table II.)

Of the 27,969 births, 25,181 were legitimate, and 2,788 illegitimate; indicating that 9·9 per cent. of the births were illegitimate. As usual, the proportion of illegitimate births was lowest in the town and highest in the rural districts, only 9·7 per cent. of the town births, but 10·3 per cent. of the rural, being illegitimate. Table I exhibits the proportion of illegitimate births in the several divisions and counties of Scotland, and generally accords with previous returns, showing that the counties included in the north-eastern and southern divisions furnish much the highest proportion of illegitimate births. Thus, 13·1 per cent. of the births were illegitimate in Roxburgh, 13·3 per cent. in Berwick, 14·2 in Dumfries, 15·8 in Kincardine and in Kircudbright, 16·8 in Aberdeen, 17·9 in Banff, while in Wigtown 22·3 per cent. of the births were illegitimate.

Of the children born during the quarter, 14,341 were boys, and 13,628 were girls; being in the proportion of 105·2 boys for every 100 girls at birth. This is about the usual proportion of the sexes at birth in Scotland. 9,423 births were registered during January, 8,825 during February, and 9,721 during March; being at the rate of 304 births daily during January, 315 daily during February, and 314 daily during March.

DEATHS.—19,981 deaths were registered in Scotland during the first quarter of 1867, being in the annual proportion of 2·51 deaths in every 100 of the population, or 251 deaths in every 10,000 persons. This is a proportion much above the average of the quarter during the ten previous years, which was in the annual proportion of 246 deaths in every 10,000 persons. The mortality, however, which prevailed during the first quarters of 1864 and 1865 greatly exceeded that of this year. In England, during the first quarter, 134,254 deaths were registered, indicating an annual death-rate of 255 deaths in every 10,000 persons, being the average death-rate of the quarter during the ten previous years.

The deaths in the town, as usual, greatly exceeded those in the rural districts. Thus, of the 19,981 deaths, 12,628 occurred in the town and 6,353 in the rural districts; indicating an annual death-rate of 293 deaths in every 10,000 persons in the town, but only 175 deaths in a like population in the rural districts.

Of the deaths, 7,375 were registered in January, 5,887 in February, and 6,719 in March; being at the rate of 238 deaths daily during January, 210 daily during February, and 217 daily during March.

INCREASE OF THE POPULATION.—As the births amounted to 27,969, and the deaths to 19,981, the natural increase of the population by births was 7,988. From that number ought to be deducted all the emigrants from Scotland, could their number be ascertained. From a return furnished by the Emigration Commissioners, it appears that 26,753 persons emigrated from the ports of the United Kingdom at which there are emigration officers. Of these 7,730 were English, 1,130 Scotch, 13,648 Irish, 3,156 foreigners, while in 1,086 the place of birth was not ascertained. If 49 be added as the Scottish proportion of those whose origin was not distinguished, the ascertained Scottish emigrants during the quarter would amount to 1,179; which number, deducted from the increase of births over deaths, would leave 6,809 as the increase of the population during the quarter, making no allowance for the emigration from the ports at which are no emigration officers, nor for the emigration to England, nor drafts to army, navy, &c.

MARRIAGES.—5,332 marriages were registered in Scotland during the first quarter of 1867, being in the annual proportion of 66 marriages in every 10,000 persons. This is greatly below the proportion of the quarter during the three previous years, but higher than the average of the quarter during the ten previous years. During the corresponding quarter of the three previous years, the proportion of marriages has been steadily increasing, being 68 in every 10,000 persons during the first quarter of 1864, 69 in 1865, and 71 in 1866. The marriages have, therefore, met with an arrestment during the quarter now closed; and two causes have been in operation sufficient to account for this, viz., the severe wintry weather in January, which threw so many of the operative classes out of work, and the

strikes for higher wages, which have been more numerous than usual in different trades.

Of the 5,332 marriages 3,429 were registered as having been contracted in the 126 town districts, while 1,903 were contracted in the rural districts; giving the annual proportion of 79 marriages in every 10,000 persons in the town, but only 52 marriages in a like population in the rural districts.

TABLE II.—*Number of Births, Deaths, and Marriages in Scotland, and in the Town and Country Districts during the Quarter ending 31st March, 1867, and their Proportion to the Population; also the Number of Illegitimate Births, and their Proportion to the Total Births.*

	Population.		Total Births.			Illegitimate Births.		
	Census, 1861.	Estimated, 1867.	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every
SCOTLAND	3,066,633	3,170,769	27,969	3·52	28	2,788	9·9	10·0
126 town districts	1,619,614	1,718,968	16,751	3·89	25	1,626	9·7	10·3
890 rural „	1,447,019	1,451,801	11,218	3·09	32	1,162	10·3	9·6

	Population.		Deaths.			Marriages.		
	Census, 1861.	Estimated, 1867.	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every
SCOTLAND	3,066,633	3,170,769	19,981	2·51	39	5,332	0·66	148
126 town districts	1,618,614	1,718,968	12,628	2·93	34	3,429	0·79	125
890 rural „	1,446,019	1,451,801	6,353	1·75	57	1,903	0·52	190

HEALTH OF THE POPULATION.—The high mortality which prevailed during the quarter seems rather to have been attributable to the severity of the weather, than to the prevalence of any epidemic, and the consequence has been that an unusual number of aged persons have been cut off, and that bronchitis, pneumonia, and other affections of the respiratory organs have been very prevalent. Typhus and typhoid fever prevailed to a considerable extent over the country, as did also the usual epidemic diseases of children, scarlatina, measles, and hooping cough. Cholera still lingered in Scotland, 33 deaths having been reported during the quarter; 25 of these having occurred in January, 6 in February, and 2 in March. The circumstance of cholera still lingering among us, and having again manifested a tendency to spread in several places on the continent of Europe, should induce the authorities to relax no efforts in the sanitary improvement of towns and crowded localities, and more especially in providing a supply of wholesome water, free from decaying animal or vegetable matters.

TABLE III.—*Number of Births, Deaths, and Marriages in Scotland, and their Proportion to the Population, Estimated to the Middle of each Year, during each Quarter of the Years 1867 to 1863 inclusive.*

	1867.		1866.		1865.		1864.		1863.	
	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.
<i>1st Quarter—</i>										
Births	27,969	3·52	28,876	3·66	28,608	3·65	28,177	3·61	26,733	3·44
Deaths.....	19,981	2·51	19,075	2·42	20,786	2·65	22,576	2·89	19,229	2·47
Marriages ..	5,332	0·66	5,627	0·71	5,407	0·69	5,333	0·68	5,126	0·66
Mean Tem- perature }	36°·5		38°·0		35°·3		35°·7		40°·9	
<i>2nd Quarter—</i>										
Births	—	—	29,801	3·78	30,332	3·86	29,992	3·84	29,655	3·82
Deaths.....	—	—	18,556	2·85	17,066	2·17	18,445	2·36	17,963	2·31
Marriages ..	—	—	6,019	0·76	5,698	0·72	5,710	0·73	5,594	0·71
Mean Tem- perature }	—		49°·3		51°·5		49°·9		49°·0	
<i>3rd Quarter—</i>										
Births	—	—	27,197	3·45	27,320	3·48	27,063	3·47	26,366	3·40
Deaths.....	—	—	15,451	1·95	15,907	2·02	16,131	2·06	16,273	2·09
Marriages ..	—	—	5,089	0·64	5,335	0·68	4,993	0·64	4,900	0·62
Mean Tem- perature }	—		54°·4		57°·5		54°·5		53°·9	
<i>4th Quarter—</i>										
Births	—	—	27,765	3·52	26,866	3·42	27,213	3·49	26,587	3·42
Deaths.....	—	—	18,191	2·30	17,072	2·17	17,151	2·19	18,016	2·32
Marriages ..	—	—	6,894	0·87	7,137	0·91	6,639	0·85	6,614	0·84
Mean Tem- perature }	—		43°·5		43°·4		42°·0		43°·6	
<i>Year—</i>										
Population.	—		3,153,413		3,136,057		3,118,701		3,101,345	
Births	—	—	113,639	3·60	113,126	3·60	112,445	3·60	109,341	3·52
Deaths.....	—	—	71,273	2·26	70,821	2·25	74,303	2·38	71,481	2·30
Marriages ..	—	—	23,629	0·75	23,577	0·75	22,675	0·72	22,234	0·71

WEATHER.—During the greater part of January keen frost prevailed, the ground was covered with snow, and the falls of snow were occasionally so heavy as to arrest traffic. This kind of weather came on suddenly on the 30th of December, on the wind changing from south-west to north-east; and such was the effect of the change on the temperature that, on the 1st of January, the lowest temperatures in the eight principal towns were from 15° to 23° Fahr. The temperature occasionally fell very low during January, the lowest temperature noted being — 6°, or 38° below the freezing point of water. The frost and snow continued uninterrupted from the last day of December till the evening of January 23, when the south-west winds regained the mastery, a rapid thaw set in, and by the 25th most

of the hills were cleared of snow, and the mild weather which came with these south-westerly winds continued till the close of the month. The cold weather which prevailed during the first three weeks of January depressed the mean temperature of the month to $31^{\circ}8$, and thus caused it to be $5^{\circ}3$ below the mean of previous years. But the mean temperature of the frosty period was about 28° .

February was an unusually mild month, with the wind almost constantly from the south-west. The mean temperature was, therefore, unusually high, viz., $41^{\circ}4$, or $3^{\circ}8$ above the mean of former years. On the 24th the wind veered to the north and north-east, and continued more or less from that quarter during the remainder of the month, bringing with it frost and occasional falls of snow.

The keen east and north-east winds which prevailed during almost the whole of March rendered it a cold ungenial month, with a mean temperature of $36^{\circ}2$. It thus presented the anomaly of being $5^{\circ}2$ below the temperature of February, besides being $3^{\circ}3$ below that of former years.

The mortality which prevailed during each of these months kept exact pace with the mean temperature. Thus January, with its low temperature of $31^{\circ}8$, caused 238 deaths daily. The mild weather of February, with its mean temperature of $41^{\circ}4$, diminished the daily deaths to 210; but the colder weather of March, with its temperature of $36^{\circ}2$, caused the daily deaths to rise to 217.

The mean barometric pressure, reduced to the sea-level and to 32° Fahr., was 29.632 inches in January, 29.816 inches in February, and 29.875 inches in March. The mean temperature of the quarter was $36^{\circ}5$; being $31^{\circ}8$ in January, $41^{\circ}4$ in February, and $36^{\circ}2$ in March. The highest temperature at any station was $52^{\circ}7$ in January, $59^{\circ}0$ in February, and $60^{\circ}6$ in March. The lowest temperatures were -6° in January, 17° in February, and $0^{\circ}0$ in March. The mean of the day temperatures was $36^{\circ}6$ in January, $46^{\circ}1$ in February, and $41^{\circ}9$ in March. The mean of the night temperatures was $26^{\circ}9$ in January, $36^{\circ}6$ in February, and $30^{\circ}5$ in March.

SCOTLAND :—MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, and DEATHS Registered in the Quarter ended 31st March, 1867.

1	2	3	4	5	6
DIVISIONS. (Scotland)	AREA in Statute Acres.	POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
		No.	No.	No.	No.
SCOTLAND Totals	19,639,377	3,062,294	5,332	27,969	19,981
I. Northern	2,261,622	130,422	192	717	565
II. North-Western	4,739,876	167,329	313	1,031	863
III. North-Eastern	2,429,594	366,783	454	3,072	1,849
IV. East Midland	2,790,492	523,822	905	4,485	3,227
V. West Midland	2,693,176	242,507	346	1,996	1,425
VI. South-Western	1,462,397	1,008,253	2,126	11,352	8,241
VII. South-Eastern	1,192,524	408,962	756	3,751	2,706
VIII. Southern	2,069,696	214,216	240	1,565	1,105

No. III.—IRELAND.

The Quarterly Report is not issued in time for publication in this *Journal*. To complete the summary of the United Kingdom, the Registrar-General for Ireland has kindly supplied the figures entered below, opposite to that country.

No. IV.—GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

SUMMARY of MARRIAGES, in the Quarter ended 31st December, 1866; and BIRTHS and DEATHS, in the Quarter ended 31st March, 1867.

COUNTRIES.	AREA in Statute Acres.	POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
		No.	No.	No.	No.
England and Wales	37,324,883	20,066,224	55,224	195,455	134,254
Scotland	19,639,377	3,062,294	6,894	27,969	19,981
Ireland	20,322,641	5,798,967	6,514	37,552	30,456
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND }	77,286,901	28,927,485	68,632	260,976	184,691

Trade of United Kingdom, 1866-65-64.—*Distribution of Exports from United Kingdom, according to the Declared Real Value of the Exports; and the Computed Real Value (Ex-duty) of Imports at Port of Entry, and therefore including Freight and Importer's Profit.*

Merchandise (<i>excluding Gold and Silver</i>), Imported from, and Exported to, the following Foreign Countries, &c. [000's omitted.]	Whole Years.					
	1866.		1865.		1864.	
	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to
I.—FOREIGN COUNTRIES :	£	£	£	£	£	£
Northern Europe; viz., Russia, Sweden, Norway, Denmark & Iceland, & Heligoland }	28,378,	7,776,	26,337,	5,911,	22,354,	5,648,
Central Europe; viz., Prussia, Germany, the Hanse Towns, Holland, and Belgium }	37,928,	25,849,	35,429,	28,763,	32,416,	24,485,
Western Europe; viz., France, Portugal (with Azores, Madeira, &c.), and Spain (with Gibraltar and Canaries)	45,987,	17,408,	39,652,	14,818,	34,326,	14,927,
Southern Europe; viz., Italy, Austrian Empire, Greece, Ionian Islands, and Malta }	6,185,	8,254,	4,827,	7,921,	4,120,	8,207,
Levant; viz., Turkey, with Wallachia and Moldavia, Syria and Palestine, and Egypt }	21,253,	15,637,	27,619,	13,137,	25,908,	13,538,
Northern Africa; viz., Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria and Morocco	415,	279,	509,	385,	415,	176,
Western Africa	1,457,	601,	1,347,	642,	1,064,	571,
Eastern Africa; with African Ports on Red Sea, Aden, Arabia, Persia, Bourbon, and Kooria Moorla Islands	116,	163,	122,	124,	73,	115,
Indian Seas, Siam, Sumatra, Java, Philippines; other Islands	1,291,	2,647,	1,363,	1,911,	1,070,	1,577,
South Sea Islands	62,	138,	27,	36,	18,	185,
China, including Hong Kong	11,328,	8,951,	12,062,	6,692,	17,098,	5,334,
United States of America	46,853,	28,484,	21,549,	21,236,	17,924,	16,704,
Mexico and Central America	874,	1,438,	3,911,	2,036,	3,557,	2,060,
Foreign West Indies and Hayti	3,409,	3,662,	5,533,	3,366,	6,767,	4,369,
South America (Northern), New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador }	1,866,	3,402,	1,837,	2,789,	1,892,	2,518,
" (Pacific), Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and Patagonia }	6,134,	3,220,	7,952,	2,798,	5,898,	3,030,
" (Atlantic) Brazil, Uruguay, and Buenos Ayres	9,840,	11,470,	9,068,	8,432,	9,302,	9,010,
Whale Fisheries; Grnlnd., Davis' Straits, Southn. Whale Fishery, & Falkland Islands }	149,	18,	154,	9,	95,	15,
<i>Total—Foreign Countries</i>	223,525,	139,397,	199,298,	121,006,	184,297,	112,470,
II.—BRITISH POSSESSIONS :						
British India, Ceylon, and Singapore	41,764,	23,030,	43,272,	20,383,	57,520,	21,909,
Austral. Cols.—New South Wales and Victoria	7,767,	9,133,	7,102,	9,316,	6,854,	8,060,
" " So. Aus., W. Aus., Tasm., and N. Zealand	3,657,	4,529,	3,181,	4,037,	3,185,	3,799,
British North America	6,869,	6,830,	6,350,	4,705,	6,851,	5,611,
" W. Indies with Btsh. Guiana & Honduras	6,615,	2,865,	7,372,	2,909,	11,450,	4,325,
Cape and Natal	2,719,	1,399,	2,446,	1,700,	1,976,	2,273,
Br. W. Co. of Af., Ascension and St. Helena	527,	583,	450,	457,	306,	314,
Mauritius	1,330,	569,	1,246,	597,	1,589,	659,
Channel Islands	431,	493,	418,	752,	836,	1,016,
<i>Total—British Possessions</i>	71,679,	49,431,	71,837,	44,856,	90,567,	47,966,
General Total	£ 295,204,	188,828,	271,135,	165,862,	274,864,	160,436,

IMPORTS. — (United Kingdom.) — **First Two Months** (*January — February*), **1867-66-65-64-63.**—*Computed Real Value (Ex-duty), at Port of Entry (and therefore including Freight and Importer's Profit), of Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise Imported into the United Kingdom.*

(First Two Months.) [000's omitted.] FOREIGN ARTICLES IMPORTED.		1867.	1866.	1865.	1864.	1863.
		£	£	£	£	£
RAW MATLS.— <i>Textile.</i>	Cotton Wool ...	6,265,	10,055,	7,057,	6,060,	3,532,
	Wool (Sheep's) ..	898,	691,	728,	534,	578,
	Silk	2,781,	2,606,	2,283,	1,635,	2,190,
	Flax	580,	342,	324,	810,	387,
	Hemp	116,	254,	139,	209,	110,
	Indigo	279,	174,	211,	94,	223,
		10,919,	14,122,	10,742,	9,342,	7,020,
" " <i>Various.</i>	Hides	149,	197,	198,	169,	162,
	Oils	314,	469,	341,	293,	378,
	Metals	388,	442,	377,	492,	411,
	Tallow	76,	135,	155,	176,	77,
	Timber.....	278,	588,	703,	973,	556,
		1,205,	1,831,	1,774,	2,103,	1,584,
" " <i>Agrcltl.</i>	Guano	31,	47,	218,	109,	141,
	Seeds	433,	425,	458,	553,	233,
		464	472,	676,	662,	374,
TROPICAL &c., PRODUCE.	Tea	2,098,	1,117,	681,	1,201,	2,120,
	Coffee	255,	211,	233,	271,	350,
	Sugar & Molasses	1,594,	1,443,	993,	935,	1,357,
	Tobacco	230,	304,	282,	263,	314,
	Rice	37,	80,	56,	85,	100,
	Fruits	75,	50,	81,	62,	40,
	Wines	604,	628,	465,	708,	595,
	Spirits	293,	247,	203,	331,	345,
		5,186,	4,080,	2,994,	3,856,	5,221,
FOOD	Grain and Meal.	4,868,	4,340,	1,509,	3,263,	3,957,
	Provisions	987,	981,	1,016,	937,	565,
		5,855,	5,321,	2,525,	4,200,	4,522,
Remainder of Enumerated Articles ...		652,	632,	579,	572,	512,
TOTAL ENUMERATED IMPORTS		24,281,	26,458,	19,290,	20,735,	19,233,
Add for UNENUMERATED IMPORTS (say)		6,070,	6,614,	4,822,	5,183,	4,808,
TOTAL IMPORTS		30,351,	33,072,	24,112,	25,918,	24,041,

EXPORTS. — (United Kingdom.) — **First Three Months** (*January — March*),
1867-66-65-64-63.—*Declared Real Value, at Port of Shipment, of Articles of*
BRITISH and IRISH Produce and Manufactures Exported from United Kingdom.

(First Three Months.) [000's omitted.] BRITISH PRODUCE, &c., EXPORTED.		1867.	1866.	1865.	1864.	1863.
		£	£	£	£	£
MANFRS.— <i>Textile.</i> Cotton Manufactures ..		13,567,	15,241,	10,947,	10,465,	6,312,
„ Yarn		3,207,	3,769,	1,708,	2,103,	1,143,
Woollen Manufactures		5,416,	5,820,	4,047,	4,718,	3,209,
„ Yarn		1,340,	1,329,	935,	1,073,	984,
Silk Manufactures.....		288,	402,	296,	387,	443,
„ Yarn		58,	76,	60,	55,	84,
Linen Manufactures		2,071,	2,717,	2,084,	1,998,	1,455,
„ Yarn		674,	630,	515,	653,	493,
		26,621,	29,984,	20,592,	21,452,	14,123,
„ Sewed. Apparel		457,	617,	536,	554,	526,
Haberdy. and Millnry.		1,213,	1,459,	1,002,	1,252,	860,
		1,670,	2,076,	1,538,	1,806,	1,386,
METALS Hardware		870,	1,037,	892,	842,	680,
Machinery		1,002,	968,	1,296,	924,	838,
Iron		2,899,	3,121,	2,399,	2,982,	2,536,
Copper and Brass.....		657,	559,	913,	697,	784,
Lead and Tin		684,	834,	576,	709,	610,
Coals and Culm		995,	1,022,	905,	903,	765,
		7,107,	7,541,	6,981,	7,057,	6,178,
Ceramic Manufcts. Earthenware and Glass		602,	562,	524,	490,	435,
Indigenous Mnfrs. Beer and Ale.....		555,	585,	595,	474,	456,
Butter		69,	86,	56,	69,	108,
Cheese		29,	39,	22,	41,	31,
Candles		36,	54,	28,	32,	54,
Salt		69,	65,	33,	48,	52,
Spirits		41,	31,	69,	161,	114,
Soda		368,	383,	228,	209,	198,
		1,167,	1,243,	1,031,	1,034,	1,013,
Various Manufcts. Books, Printed		135,	139,	98,	100,	89,
Furniture		39,	60,	91,	47,	64,
Leather Manufactures		411,	534,	614,	525,	456,
Soap		58,	43,	44,	53,	59,
Plate and Watches		96,	86,	97,	98,	114,
Stationery		81,	89,	95,	75,	59,
		820,	951,	1,039,	898,	842,
Remainder of Enumerated Articles		2,367,	2,557,	2,200,	2,212,	1,771,
Unenumerated Articles.....		2,028,	2,077,	1,730,	1,718,	1,813,
TOTAL EXPORTS.....		42,382,	46,991,	35,635,	36,667,	27,561,

SHIPPING. — FOREIGN TRADE.—(United Kingdom.) — **First Three Months**
(January—March), 1867-66-65-64.—*Vessels Entered and Cleared with Cargoes,*
including repeated Voyages, but excluding Government Transports.

(First Three Months.) ENTERED :—	1867.			1866.		1865.		1864.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Average Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage. (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)
<i>Vessels belonging to—</i>	No.	Tons.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Russia	64	26,	406	71	28,	63	27,	75	31,
Sweden	126	26,	206	110	23,	56	10,	135	24,
Norway	528	123,	233	555	128,	491	106,	515	113,
Denmark	511	57,	111	300	34,	227	24,	617	61,
Prussia and Ger. Sts....	563	155,	275	489	146,	358	102,	452	121,
Holland and Belgium....	388	48,	124	504	67,	367	50,	461	56,
France	570	53,	93	794	79,	640	57,	700	57,
Spain and Portugal	94	33,	351	77	24,	83	27,	78	22,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	111	37,	333	263	86,	153	47,	112	36,
United States	91	100,	1,099	123	123,	60	67,	111	124,
All other States	—	—	—	3	1,	10	4,	2	1,
	3,046	658,	216	3,289	739,	2,508	521,	3,258	646,
United Kingdm. & } Depds..... }	4,868	1,739,	357	5,422	1,861,	4,398	1,401,	4,522	1,417,
<i>Totals Entered....</i>	7,914	2,397,	303	8,711	2,600,	6,906	1,922,	7,780	2,063,
 CLEARED :—									
Russia	93	37,	398	104	42,	112	49,	112	46,
Sweden	107	26,	241	112	32,	73	19,	119	25,
Norway	296	74,	250	287	72,	266	67,	380	94,
Denmark.....	514	59,	115	261	36,	347	41,	553	58,
Prussia and Ger. Sts....	768	196,	254	657	168,	576	148,	425	123,
Holland and Belgium....	355	59,	166	413	70,	385	56,	351	53,
France.....	898	105,	117	925	109,	894	98,	1,118	115,
Spain and Portugal	83	29,	349	79	24,	82	28,	74	23,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	165	59,	358	272	90,	253	82,	224	72,
United States	114	119,	1,044	137	140,	67	61,	97	102,
All other States	5	1,	200	6	3,	9	3,	3	1,
	3,398	764,	225	3,253	786,	3,064	652,	3,456	712,
United Kingdm. & } Depds..... }	5,998	2,114,	353	6,287	2,183,	5,688	1,879,	5,971	1,882,
<i>Totals Cleared....</i>	9,396	2,873,	306	9,540	2,969,	8,752	2,531,	9,427	2,594,

GOLD AND SILVER BULLION AND SPECIE. — IMPORTED AND EXPORTED. — (United Kingdom.) — *Computed Real Value for the First Three Months (January—March), 1867-66-65.*

[000's omitted.]

(First Three Months)	1867.		1866.		1865.	
	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.
Imported from:—	£	£	£	£	£	£
Australia	1,168,	1,	1,309,	1,	533,	—
So. Amca. and W. } Indies	406,	1,140,	407,	1,137,	772,	1,375,
United States and } Cal.	210,	347,	353,	318,	988,	21,
	1,784,	1,488,	2,069,	1,456,	2,293,	1,396,
France	160,	342,	28,	177,	17,	307,
Hanse Towns, Holl. } & Belg.	22,	65,	147,	523,	4,	29,
Prtgl., Spain, and } Gbrltr.	42,	20,	136,	24,	249,	16,
Mlta., Trky., and } Egypt	11,	2,	1,	2,	44,	—
China	—	—	—	—	—	—
West Coast of Africa	32,	1,	29,	6,	28,	6,
All other Countries...	102,	15,	16,	5,	25,	16,
<i>Totals Imported...</i>	2,153,	1,933,	2,426,	2,193,	3,651,	1,770,
Exported to:—						
France	1,079,	241,	944,	377,	881,	184,
Hanse Towns, Holl. } & Belg.	34,	1,273,	44,	26,	2,	348,
Prtgl., Spain, and } Gbrltr.	155,	—	—	—	363,	—
	1,268,	1,514,	988,	403,	1,246,	532,
Ind. and China (via } Egypt)	7,	108,	255,	1,973,	115,	934,
Danish West Indies	—	—	—	—	—	—
United States	1,	—	—	—	—	—
South Africa	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mauritius	—	—	—	—	—	—
Brazil	13,	23,	121,	27,	3,	26,
All other Countries...	183,	38,	32,	40,	106,	22,
<i>Totals Exported...</i>	1,472,	1,683,	1,396,	2,443,	1,470,	1,514,
Excess of Imports ...	681,	250,	1,030,	—	2,181,	256,
„ Exports ...	—	—	—	250,	—	—

REVENUE.—(UNITED KINGDOM.)—31ST MARCH, 1867-66-65-64.

Net Produce in YEARS and QUARTERS ended 31st MARCH, 1867-66-65-64.

[000's omitted.]

QUARTERS, ended 31st March.	1867.	1866.	1867.		Corresponding Quarters.	
			Less.	More.	1865.	1864.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Customs	5,527,	5,139,	—	388,	5,570,	5,533,
Excise	5,535,	5,481,	—	54,	5,342,	5,127,
Stamps	2,554,	2,425,	—	129,	2,501,	2,439,
Taxes	389,	384,	—	5,	398,	367,
Post Office	1,100,	1,005,	—	95,	1,005,	965,
	15,105,	14,434,	—	671,	14,816,	14,431,
Property Tax	2,156,	1,914,	—	242,	3,127,	3,168,
	17,261,	16,348,	—	913,	17,943,	17,599,
Crown Lands	93,	90,	—	3,	84,	81,
Miscellaneous	1,088,	1,355,	267,	—	1,150,	1,309,
Totals	18,442,	17,793,	267,	916,	19,177,	18,989,
			NET DECR. £648,906			

YEARS, ended 31st March.	1867.	1866.	1867.		Corresponding Years.	
			Less.	More.	1865.	1864.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Customs	22,303,	21,276,	—	1,027	22,572,	23,232,
Excise	20,670,	19,788,	—	882,	19,558,	18,207,
Stamps	9,420,	9,560,	140,	—	9,530,	9,317,
Taxes	3,468,	3,350,	—	118,	3,292,	3,218,
Post Office	4,470,	4,250,	—	220,	4,100,	3,810,
	60,331,	58,224,	140,	2,247,	59,052,	57,784,
Property Tax	5,700,	6,390,	690,	—	7,958,	9,084,
	66,031,	64,614,	830,	2,247,	67,010,	66,868,
Crown Lands	330,	320,	—	10,	310,	305,
Miscellaneous	3,073,	2,878,	—	195,	2,993,	3,035,
Totals	69,434,	67,812,	830,	2,452,	70,313,	70,208,
			NET DECR. £1,622,276			

REVENUE.—UNITED KINGDOM.—QUARTER ENDED 31ST MARCH, 1867:—

An Account showing the REVENUE and other RECEIPTS of the QUARTER ended 31st March, 1867; the APPLICATION of the same, and the Charge of the Consolidated Fund for the said Quarter, together with the Surplus or Deficiency upon such Charge.

Received:—

Surplus Balance beyond the Charge of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> for the Quarter ended 31st December, 1866, viz.:—	£
Great Britain	—
Ireland	£951,740
	<u>951,740</u>
Income received, as shown in Account I	18,441,871
Amount received in repayment of Advances for Public Works, &c.	272,828
Ditto, for New Courts of Justice.....	103,000
	<u>£19,769,439</u>
Balance, being the Deficiency on 31st March, 1867, upon the charge of the Consolidated Fund in Great Britain, to meet the Dividends and other charges payable in the Quarter to 30th June, 1867.....	676,863
	<u>£20,446,302</u>

Paid:—

Amount applied out of the Income in Redemption of Deficiency Bills issued in the Quarter to 31st March, 1867, for the charge of the Consolidated Fund in Great Britain on 31st December, 1866, viz.:—	£
Total deficiency.....	£1,853,765
Deduct amount redeemed with Sinking Fund ...	96,900
	<u>1,756,865</u>
Amount applied out of the Income to <i>Supply Services</i>	9,933,176
„ advanced for New Courts of Justice	140,000
Charge of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> for the Quarter ended 31st March, 1867, viz.:—	
Interest of the Permanent Debt	£5,545,736
Terminable Debt	1,013,366
Principal of Exchequer Bills	43,500
Interest of „	45,064
„ Deficiency Bills	—
The Civil List	101,385
Other Charges on Consolidated Fund	350,156
Advances for Public Works, &c.	354,725
Sinking Fund	337,723
	<u>7,791,655</u>
<i>Surplus Balance</i> in Ireland beyond the Charge of the Consolidated Fund in Ireland for the Quarter ended 31st March, 1867	824,606
	<u>£20,446,302</u>

BRITISH CORN.—*Gazette Average Prices (ENGLAND AND WALES),
First Quarter of 1867.*

[This Table is communicated by the Statistical and Corn Department, Board of Trade.]

Weeks ended on a Saturday, 1867.		Weekly Average. (Per Impl. Quarter.)					
		Wheat.		Barley.		Oats.	
		s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Jan.	5	60	2	43	6	24	2
"	12	61	—	43	5	24	2
"	19	62	3	44	5	23	4
"	26	62	2	45	9	24	5
Average for January		61	4	44	3	24	—
Feb.	2	62	6	45	2	24	6
"	9	61	4	45	3	24	9
"	16	59	10	43	9	23	6
"	23	59	11	43	4	24	3
Average for February		60	10	44	4	24	3
March	2	59	8	42	4	24	8
"	9	59	3	41	5	24	1
"	16	59	4	41	5	24	9
"	23	59	9	40	5	24	8
"	30	60	11	39	6	24	11
Average for March		59	9	41	—	24	7
Average for the quarter		60	7	43	—	24	3

RAILWAYS.—PRICES, *January—March;—and* TRAFFIC, *January—March, 1867.*

Railway.	For the (£100). Price on			Miles Open.		Total Traffic. First 13 Weeks. (000's omitted.)		Traffic pr. Mile pr. Wk. 13 Weeks.		Dividends per Cent. for Half Years.		
	1st Mar.	1st Feb.	1st Jan.	'67.	'66.	'67.	'66.	'67.	'66.	30 June, '66.	31 Dec. '65.	30 Jun. '65.
	£	£	£	No.	No.	£	£	£	£	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Lond. & N. Westn.	120	123¼	120¾	1,319	1,291	1,409,	1,404,	87	90	60 —	72 6	60 —
Great Western ...	47¾	54	54¾	1,311	1,280	892,	901,	57	58	20 —	20 —	20 —
" Northern...	117	121	119	423	404	472,	451,	90	90	50 —	87 —	55 —
" Eastern ...	31½	34	28¾	709	727	400,	415,	44	50	Nil	Nil	10 —
Brighton	81½	88	86½	319	293	229,	228,	54	84	40 —	65 —	50 —
South-Eastern ...	70	73	68½	330	319	286,	273,	83	70	28 9	45 —	25 —
" Western....	83	89	83¾	503	500	258,	273,	60	51	40 —	55 —	45 —
	78½	83¼	80¼	4,914	4,814	3,946,	3,945,	66	70	34 1	49 3	38 —
Midland	119½	123¼	123½	695	677	628,	629,	72	79	60 —	70 —	65 —
Lancsh. and York.	127	128¾	129	403	403	561,	535,	107	116	67 6	62 6	55 —
Sheffield and Man.	50	52½	52½	246	246	—	—	80	78	20 —	35 —	10 —
North-Eastern ...	103½	106	108½	1,221	1,208	832,	829,	57	59	55 —	65 —	55 —
	99¾	102½	103¼	2,565	2,534	2,021,	1,993,	79	83	48 1	58 1	38 9
Caledonian	118	120	124	573	562	402,	404,	56	57	72 6	75 —	67 6
Gt. S. & Wn. Irln.	91	93	92	419	387	—	—	32	26	50 —	50 —	45 —
Gen. aver.	84½	92¾	91½	8,471	8,297	6,369,	6,342,	68	70	42 7	54 —	43 3

Consols.—Money Prices, 1st March, 91½ to ¼.—1st Feb., 90½ to ¾.—1st Jan. 90 to ⅛.
Exchequer Bills.—1st March, 7s. to 12s. pm.—1st Feb., 10s. to 14s. pm.—1st Jan., 7s. to 11s. pm.

BANK OF ENGLAND.—WEEKLY RETURN.

Pursuant to the Act 7th and 8th Victoria, c. 32 (1844), for Wednesday in each Week, during the FIRST QUARTER (Jan.—March) of 1867.

[0,000's omitted.]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ISSUE DEPARTMENT.					COLLATERAL COLUMNS.	
Liabilities.	DATES.	Assets.			Notes in Hands of Public. (Col. 1 minus col. 16.)	Minimum Rates of Discount at Bank of England.
Notes Issued.	(Wednesdays.)	Government Debt.	Other Securities.	Gold Coin and Bullion.		
£	1867.	£	£	£	£	1866. Per ann. 20 Dec. 3½ p.ct.
Mlns.		Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	
33,43	Jan. 2 ...	11,01	3,98	18,43	23,29	
33,46	„ 9 ...	11,01	3,98	18,46	23,31	
33,27	„ 16 ...	11,01	3,98	18,27	23,30	
32,88	„ 23 ...	11,01	3,98	17,88	22,92	
32,92	„ 30 ...	11,01	3,98	17,92	22,81	
33,09	Feb. 6 ...	11,01	3,98	18,09	23,02	1867. 7 Feb. 3 „
33,22	„ 13 ...	11,01	3,98	18,22	22,63	
33,28	„ 20 ...	11,01	3,98	18,28	22,30	
33,41	„ 27 ...	11,01	3,98	18,41	22,38	
33,39	Mar. 6 ...	11,01	3,98	18,39	22,50	
33,24	„ 13 ...	11,01	3,98	18,24	22,05	
33,43	„ 20 ...	11,01	3,98	18,43	21,85	
33,58	„ 27 ...	11,01	3,98	18,58	22,33	

BANKING DEPARTMENT.

8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Liabilities.					DATES. (Wdnsdys.)	Assets.				Totals of Liabili- ties and Assets.
Capital and Rest.		Deposits.		Seven Day and other Bills.		Securities.		Reserve.		
Capital.	Rest.	Public.	Private.			Govern- ment.	Other.	Notes.	Gold and Silver Coin.	
£	£	£	£	£	1867.	£	£	£	£	£
Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.		Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.	Mlns.
14,55	3,29	8,16	20,59	,46	Jan. 2	13,11	22,82	10,14	,98	47,06
14,55	3,46	4,44	23,05	,48	„ 9	13,11	21,75	10,15	,98	45,99
14,55	3,50	4,48	21,06	,51	„ 16	13,11	20,00	9,97	1,01	44,09
14,55	3,51	5,30	19,64	,49	„ 23	13,11	19,41	9,96	1,01	43,49
14,55	3,53	6,16	18,64	,50	„ 30	13,11	19,19	10,11	,97	43,38
14,55	3,56	6,06	18,27	,45	Feb. 6	13,11	18,72	10,07	,93	42,83
14,55	3,56	6,87	17,48	,51	„ 13	13,11	18,32	10,59	,96	42,97
14,55	3,56	6,20	18,56	,45	„ 20	13,11	18,20	10,98	1,03	43,33
14,55	3,54	6,73	17,85	,49	„ 27	13,11	18,04	11,03	,98	43,17
14,55	3,83	7,25	17,58	,42	Mar. 6	13,11	18,65	10,89	,98	43,64
14,55	3,84	8,24	16,79	,50	„ 13	13,11	18,60	11,19	1,02	43,92
14,55	3,87	8,78	16,92	,47	„ 20	13,11	18,88	11,58	1,03	44,60
14,55	3,88	9,32	17,17	,49	„ 27	13,11	20,02	11,25	1,04	46,42

CIRCULATION.—COUNTRY BANKS.

Average Amount of Promissory Notes in Circulation in ENGLAND and WALES on Saturday, in each Week during the FIRST QUARTER (Jan.—March) of 1867; and in SCOTLAND and IRELAND, at the Three Dates, as under.

ENGLAND AND WALES.				SCOTLAND.				IRELAND.		
DATES.	Private Banks. (Fixed Issues, 4,03).	Joint Stock Banks. (Fixed Issues, 3,18).	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 7,21).	Three Weeks, ended	£5 and upwards.	Under £5.	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 2,75).	£5 and upwards.	Under £5.	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 6,35).
1867.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	1867.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.
Jan. 5	2,75	2,26	5,02	Jan. 5	1,65	2,97	4,63	3,00	3,14	6,14
„ 12	2,84	2,35	5,19							
„ 19	2,83	2,34	5,17							
„ 26	2,80	2,32	5,12							
Feb. 2	2,77	2,29	5,06	Feb. 2	1,60	2,80	4,40	2,99	3,19	6,18
„ 9	2,73	2,31	5,04							
„ 16	2,70	2,30	5,00							
„ 23	2,66	2,29	4,95							
March 2	2,64	2,28	4,92	March 2	1,62	2,73	4,35	2,98	3,16	6,14
„ 9	2,65	2,30	4,95							
„ 16	2,64	2,30	4,94							
„ 23	2,65	2,30	4,95							
„ 30	2,72	2,36	5,08							

FOREIGN EXCHANGES.—Quotations as under, LONDON on Paris, Hamburg and Calcutta;—and New York, Calcutta, Hong Kong and Sydney, on LONDON—with collateral cols.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
DATES.	Paris.				Hamburg.			New York.	Calcutta.		Hong Kong.	Sydney.	Standard Silver in bars in London.
	London on Paris.	Bullion as arbitrated.		Prem. or Dis. on Gold per mille.	London on Hambg.	Bullion as arbitrated.			India Council	At Calcutta on London.			
		Agnst. Engd.	For Engd.			Agnst. Engd.	For Engd.						
3 m. d.				3 m. d.			60 d. s.	60 d. s.	6 m. d.	6 m. s.	30 d. s.	pr. oz.	
1867.		pr. ct.	pr. ct.			pr. ct.	pr. ct.	pr. ct.	d.	d.	d.	pr. ct.	d.
Jan. 5 ..	25·42½	—	—	par.	13·8½	—	—	109¼	22¾	24¼	54¼	1½ pm	60⅞
„ 19 ..	·40	·1	—	„	„ ¾	—	—	„ ⅜	23	24	„ ½	„	„
Feb. 2 ..	·37½	·2	—	„	·9	—	—	118½	„ ⅜	23⅝	„	„	„ ¾
„ 16 ..	„	·1	—	„	„ ¼	—	—	108⅝	„ ½	„ ½	„	„	„
Mar. 2 ..	„	·1	—	„	·9	—	—	„ ¾	„ ¾	„ ⅞	53	„	„
„ 16 ..	„	·2	—	„	„ ¼	—	—	109	„ ½	„	52¼	„	„

JOURNAL OF THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY,

SEPTEMBER, 1867.

On the JUDICIAL STATISTICS of ENGLAND and WALES, with SPECIAL REFERENCE to the RECENT RETURNS relating to CRIME. By JAMES T. HAMMICK, of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-Law, Member of the Council of the Statistical Society, &c.

[Read before the Statistical Society, 21st May, 1867.]

CONTENTS:

	PAGE		PAGE
I.—Introduction	375	VI.—Offences Reported to the Police	392
II.—Progress of Judicial Statistics in England	376	VII.—Offences Dealt with Summarily	395
III.—Some Deficiencies in the Home Office “Judicial “Statistics”	380	VIII.—Coroners’ Inquests	397
IV.—The Police Establishments....	386	IX.—Results of Criminal Proceedings	403
V.—Police Returns of the Criminal Classes.....	387	X.—Statistics of Prisons	409
		XI.—Conclusion	424

I.—Introduction.

As it is probable that a considerable share of public attention will be directed to questions of legal reform when the engrossing topic of constitutional reform shall, for a time at least, have been disposed of, the present appears to be no inopportune occasion to bring under the consideration of this Society the available statistical records comprising the elements upon which legislation must operate in providing measures for increasing the efficiency of our judicial system.

It would be a waste of time in the present meeting to enlarge upon the utility and importance of a systematic collection and publication of facts relating to the administration of justice. Where the investigation of truth is a preliminary step to the furtherance of improvements, or the correction of evils, our belief is that no satisfactory results can be obtained without reference to complete and accurate statistics.

Nor need I refer to the value of judicial statistics not only in supplying data whereby to institute necessary reforms in the opera-

tion of the law, but also in affording information of great interest regarding the social and moral condition of the people.

It would be a gratifying circumstance if the discussion of this subject by the Statistical Society should, in any way, be instrumental to the improvement of our judicial statistics, the collection of which has been undertaken by the Government as a matter of national concern. In this hope I venture to invite attention to the matter, purposing to describe what is now being done, and also to point out where, in my humble opinion, deficiencies exist in the official returns; at the same time indicating some of the principal features of the recent returns with regard to the criminal classes, and the state of crime in England. I ought perhaps to state that the original plan of this paper contemplated a review of the details of the proceedings of the courts, civil as well as criminal, and the modes of statistical expression adopted with respect to them, in the annual volumes of “*Judicial Statistics*,” rather than any special reference to the facts relating to crime; but on learning that the statistics of Civil judicature had engaged the attention of a Fellow of the Society much more competent than myself to deal with that branch of the subject, and himself enjoying large opportunities, as an eminent member of the equity bar, of observing the practical working of one important class of civil proceedings, I at once altered my design; and I am glad to hear that Mr. W. J. Bovill’s paper will be read at an early meeting of the Society.

II.—*Progress of Judicial Statistics in England.*

For many years the official statistics relating to the administration of justice in this country were unquestionably inferior to those of any State affecting to possess such returns. The Home Office *Tables of Criminal Offenders*, which were commenced as early as 1810, formed the first foundation of our “*Judicial Statistics*,” but the information afforded by these returns was meagre and unsatisfactory. The number of *persons committed for trial* in respect of the several classes of offences was given, but the number of offences for which those persons were apprehended, and the large class of offenders dealt with summarily, were alike unnoticed. A marked improvement in the character of the criminal returns, took place after they were confided, in 1834, to the care of Mr. S. Redgrave, to whom we are in a great measure indebted for the successful inauguration of the present improved system of judicial statistics. That intelligent public servant was, however, so ill supported in the discharge of his duties, that about the year 1839 a retrograde movement became observable in the tables. The ages and degree of instruction of the prisoners were omitted, and a few years later the sexes ceased to be distinguished; while in the criminal returns

for Scotland and Ireland, all those particulars were given as before.

Such were the only regular accounts published by the authority of the Government relating to justice; but other returns were occasionally obtained at the instance of individual members of parliament, affording useful information as to the proceedings in the civil courts, and showing that the facts could be readily furnished if called for on a systematic plan.

At the first meeting of the Statistical Congress held at Brussels in 1853, the subject of a uniform system of criminal statistics was discussed. At the following meeting of the Congress at Paris, two years later, one of the Sections was devoted to the consideration of *Statistique judiciaire*, and the outline of a plan for dealing with the subject comprehensively was agreed upon. Our esteemed colleague, Professor Leone Levi, who had been present at these meetings, addressed a letter, dated October, 1855,* to Mr. Fonblanque, as chief of the Statistical Department of the Board of Trade, pointing out the existing want of information as to the efficiency of our judicial organisation, the defective character of the criminal tables, and the absence of all regular returns of the proceedings of the civil courts. Dr. Levi described the valuable reports of the Minister of Justice in France, and urged that the Government should no longer delay the establishment of a complete system of *judicial statistics*—a phrase which the learned professor was the first to employ in an English form. A few months later Viscount Ebrington (now Earl Fortescue) in a communication addressed to Lord Palmerston on behalf of the English deputation to the Paris Congress, called attention to the deficiency of the statistical organisation in the different departments of the State, and pointed out that no branch of our statistics was more imperfect and unsatisfactory than was that of judicial statistics.*

The illustrious and veteran law reformer, Lord Brougham, in March, 1856, moved in the House of Lords a series of resolutions on this subject, and urged in a luminous speech the paramount importance of a knowledge of all the facts connected with the execution of the laws to the makers of those laws. He also enlarged upon the great superiority of the French and other foreign returns over our own. A bill was introduced by Lord Brougham to give effect to these resolutions, but it was withdrawn upon a promise by the Government to take up the question.†

Accordingly, in the summer of 1857, the Home Office tables

* Parliamentary Paper, Sess. 1856.

† This bill was, I believe, drawn by Dr. Levi, who also by able papers read before the Law Amendment Society and the Social Science Association, kept alive an interest in the subject.

appeared for the first time in the present quarto form, under the title of "*Judicial Statistics*;" and Mr. Redgrave stated in the preface that the Secretary of State (Sir G. Grey) had directed the necessary steps to be taken for obtaining returns of the proceedings in the civil tribunals, as soon as time had been afforded to complete and perfect the first portion of the work, which related to criminal justice. By the establishment of a general system of police throughout the country, the means were afforded of obtaining returns comprising a large amount of new and valuable information relating to the criminal classes. "Hitherto," observes Mr. Redgrave,* "we have had no record of the offences committed, or of the pursuit of offenders. From year to year the jurisdiction of justices has been enlarged, important classes of offences have been added, but no steps have been taken to secure any complete record of the exercise of this extensive jurisdiction. Legislation has been busy in many directions for the reformation and punishment of criminals, but very inadequate means have existed of tracing with what result. These deficiencies will, I trust, be hereafter supplied to a great extent by the police returns." Owing to the delay in completing the police establishments in a few counties, these returns were unavoidably imperfect until the publication of the "*Judicial Statistics*" for 1858, which presented another new and important feature—the promised tables of civil proceedings, forming the second part of the work.

The volumes for the subsequent years have been prepared on a uniform plan, and have been regularly issued about six months after the close of each year's accounts; in this respect contrasting favourably with the French returns, which are grievously in arrear. It should be mentioned that since the retirement of Mr. Redgrave from the Home Office, in 1860, the task of preparing and analysing the returns for publication has devolved upon Mr. F. S. Leslie, to whose courtesy I am indebted for explanations on some points in the tables concerning which I have asked his assistance.

At the meeting of the Statistical Congress in London, in 1860, one of the Sections, under the presidency of Lord Brougham, was occupied with the discussion of judicial statistics. Dr. Leone Levi prepared the comprehensive programme, and several able lawyers took part in the discussions, amongst whom I may mention Mr. T. Chambers, Q.C., Common Serjeant, Mr. Commissioner Hill, Mr. Lumley, Mr. Pitt Taylor, Mr. G. W. Hastings, and amongst the foreign visitors Dr. Asher (Hamburgh), M. Koulomzine (Russia), and Dr. Baumhauer (Holland). The international bearings of the question were of course duly considered, and the basis of a complete scheme of the statistics of law and justice were laid

* "*Judicial Statistics*," 1857.

down. A further discussion of the subject is announced as part of the programme of the next meeting of the Statistical Congress, to be held at Florence in September next.

A system of judicial statistics for Ireland has now, I am glad to say, been fairly established on the English model, under the able supervision of Dr. W. Neilson Hancock. The tables include police returns, and the proceedings of every class of courts for the determination of civil and criminal matters, but three volumes only having yet been published, commencing with the year 1863, all the particulars are not yet furnished in the desired form; nevertheless, the information supplied is of great value and interest, filling up a blank long existing in the social history of the Irish population.

As regards Scotland, the only regular judicial statistics are the *Tables of Criminal Offenders* annually presented to Parliament. These tables, which have been somewhat extended of late years by order of the Home Secretary, exhibit the commitments for trial, the age, sex, and degree of instruction of the persons committed, the nature of the offences and other particulars; but they fail to show the number of offences as distinguished from the persons sent for trial. The offences summarily punished, the police establishments, and inquisitions before the procurators fiscal, are unnoticed. Some returns, moved for in 1864 by Sir W. Dunbar, relating to the jurisdiction of the sheriffs' courts (Scotland), were printed last year, but they are unfortunately so incomplete that the results cannot be summarised. After the example of Ireland, there is no valid reason why a complete system of statistical record of the proceedings in all the courts of judicature in Scotland should not be established; and we must hope that measures for the attainment of this desirable object are receiving attention in the proper quarter.

With the statistics of justice in India we have been made acquainted through the lucid and comprehensive papers which have from time to time been contributed to the Transactions of this Society by our esteemed Vice-President Colonel W. H. Sykes, M.P., whose labours in this direction, both in India and at home, are well known to all interested in our eastern empire. In several of the colonies also, returns relating to justice and crime are now regularly published, the colony of Victoria apparently keeping the lead in respect of these statistics.

I have referred only to the official statistics relating to law and justice, and have not attempted to give an exhaustive account of all that has been accomplished in the collection and publication of this class of facts.* But even the most cursory notice of the progress

* The tables in the Reports of the Directors of Prisons are well arranged; and the Reports of the Inspectors of Constabulary in England contain valuable police

of statistical knowledge in connection with this subject, would be incomplete without honourable mention of the labours of a private individual, M. A.-M. Guerry, who, after devoting more than twenty years to its preparation, has produced that remarkable work, “*Statistique Morale de l’Angleterre comparée avec la Statistique Morale de la France*,”—a perfect monument of industry and scientific skill, and beyond question the most elaborate statistical work ever produced by the unaided labours of a single individual. Such a production is beyond my praise; but I strongly recommend those who have an opportunity of doing so, to examine the series of maps, and to read the philosophical introduction, in M. Guerry’s work.

III.—*Some Deficiencies in the Home Office “Judicial Statistics.”*

There can scarcely be a stronger inducement for those who take an interest in this class of facts, and for such a Society as this, to persevere in their active exertions to obtain complete numerical results, than the decided improvement which has already taken place in our judicial statistics. Considering the difficulties necessarily attendant upon the first establishment of periodical returns to be furnished by a large number of functionaries, it is only fair that the due meed of praise should be awarded to the founders of the present series of Home Office tables. Far be it from me to refer to their zealous and well-directed labours in any carping spirit. Whatever comments I may venture to offer will, I feel assured, be viewed in the light of that impartial criticism to which every publication, particularly every one of an important official character, is fairly open in this country.

Improved as are “*Judicial Statistics*” in the main, they are still, in some respects, defective and unsatisfactory. The judicial establishments of the country, the organisation of our legal system, the machinery by which justice is administered,—these essential matters, which should form a prominent feature of the tables, are unnoticed. We have here no information as to the number, nature, jurisdiction, and distribution of the various tribunals; the number of judges and other office bearers attached to each court; or the amount of salaries allowed to the judges and officers. Provision is made by law for the appointment of convenient places for the holding of assizes and sessions, so that unnecessary expense for the travelling of suitors, witnesses, and jurors may be avoided; and County Courts may be established in important centres of populous

statistics, particularly those of Lieutenant-General Cartwright, Inspector for No. 1 District. Police returns for the Metropolitan District, for Liverpool, Manchester, Dublin, &c., are separately published in greater detail than in the Home Office tables.

districts; but in "Judicial Statistics" we find little or nothing to enable us to judge whether the existing arrangements meet the requirements of public convenience, and whether justice is brought tolerably near to the door of every man. The organisation may be rendered sufficiently plastic to adapt itself to the ever shifting wants of the people. Nevertheless, we find courts continued in places which have become comparatively insignificant, long after the necessity for a change might have been obvious if the guidance of proper statistical data had been resorted to.

At the present time it is alleged that the efficiency of some tribunals is impaired, and that great curse of all courts—needless delay—occasioned, by the want of a sufficient number of judges. Surely "Judicial Statistics" ought to furnish the elements for testing the labours of the judges, and show the time given by them to the discharge of their onerous duties, whether in courts or in chambers? With regard to the equity judges, we *are* told the number of days on which sittings were held in their courts; but as to the judges of the Common Law courts, the county courts, &c., we are not even told how many there are of them. Such information may be thought too elementary to be worth giving, as every one knows that there are fifteen judges of the superior courts of common law; but the number of county court judges is not quite so well known, and if any one can find out the number at the respective rates of salary, he will deserve great commendation for his diligence.* The tables give details of the police of every grade, but fail to notice the heads of the judicial hierarchy.

I think it will be agreed that the annual cost to the country of law and justice should also be stated in the Home Office publication. The expense is defrayed partly out of the consolidated fund, partly out of funds voted annually by Parliament, partly out of special or local funds, and partly out of fees paid by the suitors. For the year ending 31st March, 1866, the sum charged on the consolidated fund for the salaries of the judges, stipendiary magistrates, and certain officers of courts of justice, with pensions to ex-chancellors and retired judges, compensations, &c., was 733,000*l.*; the amount voted on the estimates, under the heads of courts of justice, police, criminal proceedings, and prisons, was no less than 2,897,000*l.*, making a total of 3,630,000*l.* defrayed out of the public revenue. To this amount must be added the proportion of the cost of the police and prisons paid out of local funds and taxation, and the expense attending coroners' inquests, which together may be estimated at 1,170,000*l.* The aggregate charge on the taxpayers is

* This information may now be obtained from a valuable Parliamentary Return (No. 223, of Sess. 1867), obtained at the instance of Mr. Childers, M.P., and issued since the above was written.

therefore about 4,800,000*l.* But this by no means represents the entire cost of these establishments; the fees of court form a large additional contribution to the funds out of which the salaries of many of the non-judicial officers are defrayed.

Against this expenditure for law and justice, which can hardly be regarded with entire complacency, there is a set-off for certain fees, fines, and penalties which are paid into the exchequer. The tax on attorneys, conveyancers, and pleaders for their annual certificates, produces (average of ten years 1857-66) 89,740*l.*;* perhaps this is another set-off, but as the amount would have to be raised by some other form of taxation, little stress can be laid upon it. I think "*Judicial Statistics*" are defective in so far as they fail to furnish full details showing the charge on the nation for the administration of justice.

Again, I think the Home Office tables present a very imperfect view of the labours of the magistracy in the exercise of the large and important jurisdiction entrusted to them in petty sessions and in police courts. A vast extension of this jurisdiction has taken place during the last twenty years,—in fact it has been nearly doubled both in the number of matters and their importance. It has been stated on excellent authority† that about one-fifth of the Acts of Parliament passed every session relate, more or less, to magisterial duties, adding fresh subjects to the cognizance of justices of the peace, so that there are now upwards of two thousand offences in respect of which they are empowered to impose fines or terms of imprisonment, without trial by jury. The summary convictions by the magistrates are given in "*Judicial Statistics*," as well as the number of persons charged and committed for trial for indictable offences, but no mention is made of the numerous cases of a civil character which come before justices in petty and special sessions, and are said to occupy a larger proportion of their time than the investigation of offences. These civil matters include the removal and settlement of the poor and lunatics; granting licences for public houses, billiards, and theatres, and for dealing in game and in gunpowder; cases of affiliation; appointment of overseers and various descriptions of constables; appeals against rates, recovery of poor, church, county, and other rates; complaints relating to the wages of seamen, servants, and apprentices; to the management of the highways; to nuisances, public and private; the settlement of disputes between members of friendly and other like societies; and a variety of other matters which it would be

* Tenth Report of Inland Revenue Commissioners.

† Mr. G. C. Oke, Clerk of the Mansion House justice room, in an able paper printed in "*Transactions of the Social Science Association*" for 1862, p. 146.

tedious to mention.* Since it has been the fashion to sneer in newspapers at “justices’ justice,” let us at least find in the official returns, which are accepted as authoritative, a fair account of the vast amount of work done—and, as I believe, ably done—by the magistrates, paid and unpaid.

The Home Office tables should distinguish the number of prisoners tried at quarter sessions and at the assizes, for the several classes of offences; and in reference to the assize courts, the circuit arrangements should not be left out of view as at present.

Another defect in the “Judicial Statistics,” is the omission of all notice of courts martial, naval and military. Their number, the offences tried by them, and the sentences passed, should be furnished for the army by the judge-advocate-general, and for the navy by the corresponding functionary. Such information would have been extremely useful when the question of punishments under the Mutiny Act was recently discussed.

Statistical information with regard to juries, now wanting, would also be of great practical advantage in the consideration of measures which are called for to remedy existing grievances. It has been asked, if a jury of five, or seven, or nine, can deal with questions of fact as satisfactorily as a jury of twelve, why summon the larger number, and inconvenience more tradespeople than are necessary for the due administration of justice? But at present, with juries of twelve and juries of five, we cannot tell which of the two classes does its work in the most satisfactory manner.

Further elucidation of the tables is required for the purpose of explaining apparent discrepancies when the statements in one part of the volume are compared with those in another. To give a few examples from the “Judicial Statistics” for 1865: at p. xix we read:—

“Although the decrease which appeared in the number of commitments for 1864, as compared with the number for the preceding year, has not continued in 1865, the increase which has taken place in the latter year upon the number for 1864, amounts only to 108, or little more than 0·5 per cent.,” &c.

At p. xxvi, in reference to “commitments” in 1865, it is said:—

“In the total number committed there is a decrease of 1,865, or 1·5 per cent. as compared with the number in 1863-64.”

The apparent contradiction arises from the word “commitments” being used indifferently to signify “committed, or “bailed, for trial,” and “sent to prison” before or after conviction. Some confusion in the tables is thus occasioned, which might easily be avoided.

* See Mr. Oke’s paper, *ubi supra*.

With respect to the crime of murder, now the only capital offence, we might naturally expect full and accurate information. But the contrary is the case. The police returns do not correspond with the coroners' returns, and the discrepancy is so great, that I can only account for it on the supposition that, according to the police view of the matter, infanticide is not murder. The total number of murders reported to the police in 1865, was 135,* but by the returns of the coroners' inquests, it appears that verdicts of murder were returned in 227 cases,† the deficiency in the police numbers being no less than 92. The reverse of this might be expected, because many more cases are supposed to be cases of murder, than prove to be so in reality after investigation by coroners' juries.‡ The coroners' returns are so framed as to distinguish infanticides; the police returns should be framed in like manner.

Again, in Table I, Prisons (p. 63), the number of persons committed to prison on summary convictions, in the year ended 30th September, 1865, is 92,665, while at p. xv the persons adjudged to be imprisoned for offences determined summarily are stated to be 73,775, the difference being 18,890.

I have no doubt these matters can be readily explained; but with the figures an explanation should be given, and attention called to the several aspects of the returns.§

* “*Judicial Statistics*,” 1865, p. xi.

† *Ibid.*, p. xviii.

‡ See an article in “*Law Magazine*” for November, 1866, by Mr. C. S. Greaves, Q.C. The learned gentleman, who is well known to be a high authority in matters of criminal law, points out the above and other discordant statements in the “*Judicial Statistics*,” he also suggests several additional particulars, such as the number of prisoners charged together for the same offence; the offences committed out of England—as murder on the high seas, and tried here; the number of convictions for lesser offences upon trial for higher crimes; the number of offences by one prisoner disclosed by the depositions, as where Forwood murdered his wife, daughter, and three illegitimate children.

§ Since the above was written, Mr. Leslie has been so obliging as to furnish me with the following explanations:—“In the abstract of the ‘*Police Returns*,’ at p. xv, following ‘total committed,’ that is, the number sentenced by the magistrates to be imprisoned, the next heading is ‘fined,’ under which the number is 196,265. Of these no doubt a considerable proportion, either unable or unwilling to pay the fine, remain in prison, and these it is who swell the prison returns. The police return those only who are *sentenced* to imprisonment; the prison returns show in addition those who failing to pay the fine to which they were sentenced, are punished by imprisonment. With regard to the other point, the verdicts of murder found by coroners' juries were 227, but of these 175 were in the case of infants of 1 year and under, and in these cases, when parties are brought to trial and a conviction follows, the finding is generally for concealment of birth; and under that head, and not as murders, such cases would be reported by the police.” Who would conceive that the police, on receiving information of a verdict of wilful murder in the case of an infant, would decline to treat the case as one of murder, but would await the issue of the trial, and would then, if warranted by the result, enter in their return of reported crimes simply a case

A few words as to the civil statistics. The returns made by the officers of the respective courts having been framed to show in detail the amount of business done, all matters, whether important or unimportant, are set down. Now many of the items in the tables must be quite unintelligible to persons unacquainted with the course of procedure in an action at law or a suit in chancery. Hence it should be the object of the compiler of the "Judicial Statistics" so to condense the returns as to bring out prominently those facts which, when released from the tangled web of technicalities, would be generally understood by non-professional readers. Mr. Redgrave in 1858 expressed an opinion that the compiler should have the assistance of a practical lawyer, familiar with the procedure of the courts, and the relative importance of the various steps in a suit; but it does not appear that this opinion has been acted on.

In the return of proceedings in the Divorce Court, there is a defect so obvious that, looking at the interest felt in the working of this new tribunal, it is surprising that it should have remained uncorrected. The number of *petitions filed* is given, but the nature of the decrees or judgments of the court is not stated, so that we get no information on the point which is of greater interest than all the rest, namely, as to the number of divorces and of judicial separations actually pronounced.*

Here I gladly turn from the ungracious task of pointing to defects in the official statistics. Enough has been said to show that

of concealment of birth. Mr. Leslie has also furnished me with the following summary as illustrating the point in question :—

Coroners' Inquests, 1865—

Murder	227
Manslaughter	282
Concealment of birth	—
	— 509

Police Returns—

Murder	135
Manslaughter	279
Concealment of birth	232
	— 646

Criminal Tables—

Murder (tried)	60
Manslaughter (tried)	316
Concealment of birth (tried)	143
	— 519

* At the request of the Registrar-General, who wished to ascertain the number of couples annually released from the *vincula* of matrimony, Dr. Bayford, the Chief Registrar of the Court, has undertaken to cause a return showing that and other particulars to be prepared.

the returns are susceptible of improvement, and that the gentle pressure of friendly criticism is likely to be useful, from time to time, in keeping them up to the required standard. No objection can be made to the suggested new matter on the ground that it would interfere with the comparison of the results for different years; let it be simply an addition without displacing anything now found in the tables. It will not increase the cost of the returns to render the information as complete and useful as it is practicable to make it.

In the Home Office publication, the abstracts of the returns relating to police, criminal proceedings, and prisons, form Part I; the proceedings in the civil courts are comprised in Part II. From the technical character of the latter, it might be thought that their treatment statistically will hardly yield results approaching in interest to those deduced from the criminal returns; but this would be a mistake. Our present business, however, is with the statistics of crime, and it will be convenient, upon the whole, to follow the order of the tables in "*Judicial Statistics*" in bringing the leading facts under the notice of the Society.

The question of the greatest interest in connection with the criminal statistics is, whether the figures afford evidence of an increase or decrease of crime in the country; whether they show that the criminal class is maintaining its ground in undiminished strength, or is giving way to the repressive forces brought to bear against it. Such materials as the police returns of the number of persons of the criminal class at large, and of the houses to which they resort, of offences reported, of persons apprehended, and of commitments for trial, with the further returns of convictions and sentences, will surely furnish ample data for the solution of this important question. The principal results of the returns upon each of these heads will be noticed; but before proceeding further, the police establishments deserve attention.

IV.—*The Police Establishments.*

The establishment of a complete and uniform system of police throughout England and Wales, dates from 1858.* For that year the total strength of the force was 20,256, and this number was gradually raised to 23,250 in 1865. In its distribution we find nearly one-third of the force (7,433) stationed in the metropolitan district and city of London, and 7,325 in the provincial boroughs and the dockyards, the residue (8,492) being the county constabulary.

* The Act 19 and 20 Vict., cap. 69, making the establishment of a constabulary force compulsory in localities where the authorities had not availed themselves of the permissive powers of former statutes, had been fully acted upon before the end of 1858.

bulary. The proportion of police to the estimated population of England and Wales, was 1 to 902; the proportion in the London district and in the large towns, is necessarily much larger than in the smaller boroughs and rural parts.* The police in many localities act as inspectors of weights and measures, of common lodging houses, and of nuisances. In some unions they act as relieving officers for the casual poor.

For 1865 the total cost of the police was 1,748,758*l.*; of this sum nearly one-fourth was contributed from the public revenue. Since 1858 the annual expenditure on this head has increased nearly 20 per cent., although in that year the charge included large expenses in the nature of outfit. The average cost per man for pay, clothing, and all other charges, has increased from 72*l.* 2*s.* in 1859, to 75*l.* 4*s.* 3*d.* in 1865, or 3*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.* for each man.†

In Ireland, according to the "Judicial Statistics" of that country for 1865, the strength of the police and constabulary was 13,327, or 1 to every 435 of the population in 1861, so that in an equal number of inhabitants there are two police constables in Ireland for one in England. The total cost of the Irish police establishments for 1865, was 775,000*l.*, whereof 705,000*l.* was defrayed out of the public revenue, leaving only about 9 per cent. of the expense to be provided for by local taxation. Thus the rule as to the proportion to be contributed from the general and local taxes, is entirely different in the two countries; and this has arisen partly from the semi-military character of the Irish constabulary, partly from the men being employed on some not strictly police duties, such as in collecting the agricultural statistics, and "in part from special arrangements made for compensating the landed interests in Ireland on the repeal of the corn laws in 1846."‡ The average cost per man, including all charges of management, was 57*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.*; this will be increased, as many of the force now receive additional pay in recognition of their loyalty and admirable conduct during the Fenian disturbances in March last.

V.—*Police Returns of the Criminal Classes.*

Before the police system was established, any attempt to estimate the probable number of thieves, depredators, and others habitually following unlawful pursuits, at large amongst the community, naturally resulted in fallacious or exaggerated statements. Mr. Colquhoun in his work on the police of the metropolis, pub-

* See Appendix.

† By the revised rules made by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, in March, 1866, a scale of increased pay has been adopted for the rural police. See Parliamentary Paper, No. 326, Sess. 1866. The pay of the metropolitan police has also recently been increased.

‡ "Judicial Statistics, Ireland, 1865," p. 9.

lished in 1796, estimated the persons in and near London living by pursuits either criminal or immoral, at 115,000, including 50,000 prostitutes, nearly ten times the number now returned by the police for three times the population. The Constabulary Force Commissioners reported in 1839 that they had failed to obtain this information on any data upon which they could rely.* The subject continued to be involved in much obscurity until 1858, when a very laudable attempt was made to ascertain approximately the numbers of these classes through the police. There was no inquiry in the nature of a census applicable to any one day, but the information was collected during *the month of September*. “It is the result,” says Mr. Redgrave, “of the daily observation of the police, and “must depend upon their knowledge and efficiency, which is. no “doubt, greater in some districts than in others, but there is little “question that the characters of the persons described are sufficiently obvious and well known to the trained constables whose “districts they frequent.”†

Following the instructions given to them, the police include in their returns a large number of persons, on the ground that they have apparently no honest means of living, like the prostitutes, who are not offenders in a legal sense. The classes distinguished are—(1) known thieves and depredators; (2) receivers of stolen goods; (3) prostitutes; (4) suspected persons; and (5) vagrants and tramps. The numbers under and above 16 years of age are separately stated, and a further return is made of the houses frequented by the so-called criminal classes.

These instructive returns have been furnished annually since 1858, and a strong corroboration of their accuracy is found in the general agreement of the results year after year, except in so far as changes in the procedure affected their uniformity. The absence of well-considered specific instructions in the first instance, is to be regretted.‡

* In the census report for 1851, it was remarked, “The numbers in criminal “occupations could only be procured with any approach to accuracy by the police, “who were not called in to aid this inquiry; hence some will appear under their “secondary occupations,” &c. Mr. Redgrave, in his report on the Criminal Statistics for 1858, has fallen into the error of supposing that the persons returned as of “no stated occupations,” amounting to no less than 304,109, were assumed by the Census Commissioners to be persons of *criminal* occupations; whereas they were simply persons whose callings were not returned, or were indefinitely described, so that it was impossible to refer them to any place in the classification of stated occupations. He observes, however, “it must not be concluded that all such live “by violation of the law, yet undoubtedly from these classes large numbers of “criminals spring.”

† “*Judicial Statistics*,” 1858, p. vii.

‡ Persons who had at some former time been convicted, even when they were supposed to have abandoned their evil pursuits, were generally included in the returns prior to 1861, but in that year they were omitted; in 1864 this rule was

It has been said of the police that, construing the old rule inversely, they look upon every man as guilty until he is proved to be innocent. If this were true—and I do not believe it—the policeman's view of human nature would lead him rather to overstate the number of suspected persons and of the criminal class generally. On the other hand, the police may be tempted to show their vigilance and efficiency by a light return of persons engaged in unlawful pursuits at large in their districts. At first the different interpretations given to the term "known thief"—some counties returning every man as a thief who had ever been convicted of stealing, and others omitting those who had turned from dishonest ways—greatly impaired the value of these returns; but assuming that the police compiled them from *registered* accounts of the bad characters, I do not see why they may not be received as tolerably accurate.

What then is the probable strength of the habitual criminals at large—the enemy with whom the 23,250 police in England have to do battle? The uniformity of the results for 1865 and 1864 is so striking, that I cite the figures in order to exhibit a comparison with those for the average of the three years 1858-60:—

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1858-60.
Known thieves and depredators	22,773	23,298	39,222
Receivers of stolen goods	3,024	3,188	4,398
Suspected persons	29,591	30,237	37,372
	55,388	56,723	80,992
Prostitutes	27,548	28,094	30,113
Vagrants and tramps.....	33,690	31,932	22,838
	116,626	116,749	133,943

Making every allowance for the disturbance arising from defective definitions, we have, I think, reasonable grounds for believing that the classes who live by plunder and other means scarcely less reputable, are not on the increase. It is especially noticeable that a large decrease has taken place in the number of juvenile criminals at large—a result, doubtless attributable to

limited to persons of this class who had conducted themselves well for a year or more. Again, in 1863, the method at first adopted of estimating the number of tramps and vagrants from *daily averages* taken in the month of September was abandoned, and instead a return was made of the number who slept in each district on a stated night in September. Then, for 1865, the number of tramps and vagrants was ascertained in the month of *April*, instead of September as in previous years.

the action of reformatories which must interfere with the recruitment of the ranks of professional thieves.*

The increase in the return of vagrants and tramps for 1865 (when the numbers were ascertained in April instead of September, as in previous years) was confined to the metropolitan district, and the report remarks on “the great influx of this class into London in the spring.” But as this circumstance of the tramps and beggars flocking to town in the season, when they expect to meet a larger number of persons likely to bestow money on them, would not affect their aggregate numbers in the whole of the country, it may be doubted whether any safe inference as to an increase or decrease of this class can be drawn from observations taken in any one month in the year.

Where are the criminal classes found in the highest ratio to the general population amongst which they live? I need hardly remind my hearers that comparisons between different localities as regards the state of crime, when based on *population*, must be received with the greatest caution. Take the city of London, for instance, where the circumstances of the resident population are entirely exceptional—how fallacious must any conclusions be in reference to *criminal* statistics on such a basis, which nevertheless is the correct basis in reference to mortality and various other matters.† Mr. Redgrave considered it allowable to make a comparison of towns in groups, showing the numbers of the criminal class and their proportion to the population in eight of such groups, composed of towns possessing somewhat distinct features. On tabulating his results for the eight years 1858-65, I find that London holds the first place in having the smallest number of the

* It is rather singular that the police should have known 57 boys and girls under 16 years of age as *receivers of stolen goods* in 1865; small numbers also appear in the tables of previous years.

† Sir R. Mayne has exposed himself to rather severe criticism lately at the hands of Mr. Scott, Chamberlain of the city of London, in consequence of some unguarded statements on the proportion of crime to population in the city as compared with the district of the metropolitan police. In a letter to the Home Secretary Sir Richard Mayne stated, with reference to the Criminal Returns for 1861, that “crimes of a serious character, both those against persons and houses, as well as crimes of every description, are relatively to population and houses, much higher in the city than in the metropolitan district. The inference is, that the metropolitan police are more efficient than the city police for the prevention of crime.” Mr. Scott points out the fallacy of this inference as based on the sleeping population and *inhabited* houses on the night of the census, and asks whether the 170,133 persons engaged commercially day by day at their places of business in the city, and its fluctuating daily population, “forming a total of 728,986 human beings, of average honesty and morality, never commit any criminal act?” Mr. Scott then proceeds to compute the rate of crime in the city upon this basis of population, the result being almost as fallacious on one side of the question as is that of Sir R. Mayne on the other.—See “A Statistical Vindication of the City of London,” by Benjamin Scott, F.R.A.S.

criminal classes in proportion to the population, viz., 1 in 216·8. The seats of the small and mixed textile fabrics (including Nottingham, Derby, Norwich, &c.) come next, the proportion being 1 in 146·3; then the seats of the cotton and linen manufactures (including Manchester, Preston, &c.), 1 in 141·0; the seats of the woollen and worsted manufacture, the commercial ports, and the towns dependent upon agricultural districts, follow; and at the bottom of the table are the seats of the hardware manufacture and the pleasure towns (including Brighton, Bath, Leamington, Scarborough, &c.), the proportion in both these groups being 1 in 89·7. It seems rather a startling assertion that there is one person of known bad character to every ninety inhabitants of these last-mentioned communities. We must not forget, however, with reference to these statements generally, that the criminal classes are, for the most part, congregated in the towns.*

With respect to prostitutes separately, the seats of the woollen and worsted manufacture have the smallest number in proportion to population; then the hardware and the cotton towns. London occupies a middle place; the small textile, agricultural, and pleasure towns follow; and the commercial ports (not including London, Portsmouth, or Plymouth), have by far the largest proportionate number of this class.

It should be added that, according to the eight years' returns of the criminal classes at large, 58 per cent. are males and 42 per cent. females, but the latter, notoriously bad as their characters may be, do not appear in criminal proceedings, either in connection with the class of offences punished summarily or with graver offences, in nearly so large a proportion as the above; the reason may probably be found in the distinction which exists between the vicious and the criminal.

* The following are the ratios to population of the total criminal class, and of prostitutes separately, in the eight groups of towns:—

	Total Criminal Class, One in	Prostitutes Separately. One in
Metropolitan district.....	216·8	475·7
Seats of the small textile fabrics	146·3	443·1
„ cotton and linen manufactures.....	141·0	524·7
„ woollen and worsted manufactures ...	139·1	623·2
Commercial ports	108·1	198·9
Agricultural towns	99·0	263·4
Hardware „	89·7	564·0
Pleasure „	89·7	239·4

These proportions are the mean of the eight years 1858-65, as given in the “Judicial Statistics.”

Houses of Bad Character.—The houses which are the resorts of those who live by dishonesty and vice, must be fully known to the police in every district; and effective measures for the repression of such houses cannot fail to produce an effect in the diminution of crime. In 1858 there were 25,120 houses of bad character known to the police. The return for 1859 showed an increase of 4·6 per cent., which was supposed to be due to the improved observation of the police. Since that date there has been a gradual diminution, not only in the total number, but in each description of these houses, the return for 1865 being 20,689, or 22·2 per cent. less than that for 1859.

VI.—*Offences Reported to the Police.*

We proceed to notice the returns showing the “number of crimes committed in each police district (so far as known to the police), the number of persons apprehended, and the disposal of the charges against them.” The crimes in question are of the graver class, and are such as would be the subject of some hue and cry, or as would lead to an application for police assistance. All lesser offences dealt with summarily are excluded.

It is certain that the actual amount of crime committed can never at any time be ascertained. Robbery is sometimes carried on for years without detection; and the unwillingness of persons to make known and to prosecute frauds by servants and others will always render the returns on this head incomplete. There will also be a considerable variance between the number of *crimes* reported and of *offenders* apprehended, because two or more persons often participate in one crime, while several offences are often committed by the same person before he is captured; moreover, many of the perpetrators of reported crimes succeed in eluding the police.*

But, making due allowance for these circumstances, it is impossible to accept as entirely trustworthy the police returns of reported offences. We have seen that with respect to the important crime of murder, the reported cases, as tested by the actual verdicts of coroners’ juries, are much below the mark. As regards the crime of manslaughter, the same remark applies; the cases in the police returns being fewer than in the returns of inquests, although it not unfrequently happens that supposed cases of manslaughter are found by coroners’ juries to be really cases of accidental death. Yet these questionable, if not erroneous, figures, are each year compared with those for the preceding year, without the slightest suggestion of a doubt as to their completeness.

* The present state of the law, with respect to the endorsing of warrants, has the effect of delaying the apprehension of offenders, and thereby increases their chance of escape, especially when they are about to leave the country.

There is also a striking want of uniformity in the mode of returning the “crimes committed” in different localities. Take the two important towns of Liverpool and Manchester, the following are the results given for 1865 :—

	Population, 1861.	Crimes Reported.	Persons Apprehended.	Persons Committed or Bailed for Trial.
Liverpool	443,938	4,629	2,170	1,003
Manchester	338,722	7,351	1,394	570

Here it is quite clear that the police at Manchester include in their returns a much wider range of offences, and many more of a trivial character, than the police at Liverpool. This variance in practice must arise from the absence of precise rules for the guidance of the police ; and seeing that the same thing is observable in the returns for previous years, it is surprising that, instead of giving a discretionary judgment to the police, the necessity for more definite instructions has not been recognised.*

Taking the returns, however, for what they are worth, and comparing the number of persons apprehended with the number of indictable offences reported—a comparison usually employed as a test of the vigilance of the police—we obtain the following results for England and Wales :—

	Crimes Reported.	Persons Apprehended.	Proportion per Cent. of Apprehensions to Crimes Reported.
Annual average of four years, 1858-61	52,775	27,403	51·9
„ „ '61-65	52,186	29,353	56·2

Thus it appears that while there is a slight decrease in the number of reported crimes, the proportion of apprehensions has increased by 4·3 per cent. during the four years ended 30th September, 1865, both results being satisfactory, if the data may be relied upon for the purposes of *comparison*, as may possibly be the case.

* It appears that the wording of the instruction as to “crimes committed” is as follows :—“The officers of police should enter such cases as, *in their judgment*, “from the circumstances attending them, would, *if discovered*, be sent for trial.” It is scarcely possible that this discretion in determining whether the case would be sent for trial would be exercised alike by any two individuals, without a complete investigation of the circumstances in the presence of the accused.

We further learn from these returns of reported offences, which are made up for periods of three months, that crime is at its maximum during the winter months—a result to which a diminution of employment in that season of the year, as well as the long dark nights, may contribute; and in the winter also the proportion of apprehensions to crimes is lowest. In the case of offences against the person, it appears that nearly all the offenders are apprehended; but the proportion of apprehensions in cases of burglary, housebreaking, attempts upon the dwelling, &c., is very low.

We may now ask, in what manner are the persons apprehended and brought before magistrates, charged with the graver class of offences, disposed of? We learn from the tables that more than 30 per cent. (in several years fully one-third) of the persons apprehended are discharged—a fact which does not say much for the care and diligence exercised in obtaining evidence against persons charged with the commission of crimes before they are brought before the magistrates. The proportion discharged has somewhat decreased of late years, so that the numbers committed or bailed for trial are now about 70 per cent. of the total apprehended. It will be seen presently that about one-fourth of these ultimately escape conviction, owing to insufficient evidence and on other grounds.*

The numbers and proportions discharged and committed or bailed for trial, were in 1865, 1861, and 1858, as follows:—

	1865.	1861.	1858.
Total apprehended	29,049	27,174	30,458
„ discharged	8,988	8,973	11,980
Proportion per cent. of discharged } to total apprehended	30·3	33·0	39·6
Total committed or bailed for trial*....	20,061	18,201	18,478
Proportion per cent. committed or } bailed to total apprehended	69·7	67·0	60·4

* Including persons committed for want of sureties, viz., 47 in 1865, 54 in 1861, and 82 in 1858.

* In “Judicial Statistics” for 1865, we read (p. xiv), “The number of persons committed or bailed for trial having been 20,014, *supposing* 25 per cent. (about the usual proportion) of this number to be discharged or acquitted on trial, there would remain 15,011 as the number convicted. But this number is in the proportion of nearly 29 per cent. to the number of indictable offences reported. It would, therefore, appear that for 71 per cent. of the offences committed, or nearly three out of every four, no person is convicted.” This statement is entirely fallacious; the fallacy consists in assuming that 15,011 persons are convicted in respect of *as many reported offences*, whereas two or more persons are very frequently convicted for the same offence. Besides, “supposing” is unnecessary, the actual facts being at hand.

In Ireland the proportion of apprehensions to the number of crimes reported, appears to be much higher than in England. This may be caused in part by the superior efficiency of the Irish constabulary, and partly by the fact that the proportion of assaults inflicting bodily harm, and assaults on peace officers and others, is larger in Ireland, that class of offences being usually followed by the apprehension of the offenders.

VII.—*Offences Dealt with Summarily.*

The class of indictable offences to which the police returns just noticed refer, comprises unfortunately only a small proportion of the crime of the country. The summary jurisdiction of the magistrates has been so largely extended of late years, that the proceedings in petty sessions and police courts are now an important part of criminal justice; and in many instances the offences dealt with summarily are separated from felonies only by the form of proceeding. In fact, owing to the operation of the Criminal Justice and Juvenile Offenders' Acts, the summary convictions for larceny and other offences formerly sent for trial at the sessions are so numerous as to destroy all comparison between the present returns and those relating to a date earlier than 1856.

The following figures show the extent of these summary proceedings in 1865 and in two earlier years:—

	1865.	1861.	1858.
Persons proceeded against summarily....	458,914	394,717	404,034
Discharged on examination	146,032	131,207	143,744
Proportion per cent. discharged	31·8	33·3	35·5
Convicted	312,882	263,510	260,290
Proportion per cent. convicted	68·2	66·7	64·5

Many of the persons proceeded against were, no doubt, brought before the justices more than once in the year, the offences being punished with remarkable leniency, and in numerous cases, for a first offence, the offender is dismissed with a caution. The increase in the number of summary proceedings has been remarkable since 1861. The returns for 1865 show an increase of 18,001, or 4 per cent., upon the number for the preceding year, when there was an increase of 19,050, or 4·5 per cent., upon the number for 1863. We have no suggestion in the tables of the causes of this increase, but from the larger proportion of convictions it may be conjectured that it is in some measure due to the increased activity of the police.

As to the offences which bring the largest number of delinquents

before the justices, we find that drunkenness (with “drunk and disorderly”) stands first, having increased from 82,196 in 1861, to 105,310 in 1865—still a small fraction only of the cases of this class, as the police do not interfere except to prevent breach of the peace or obstruction in the public thoroughfares, or to protect the person or property of the offender. Aggravated assaults on women and children and other assaults come next, showing in the number of cases (98,776) for 1865, an increase of 4,402, or 4·6 per cent. upon the number for 1864, following an increase in each year since 1861. These brutal acts of violence are largely committed by offenders who plead drunkenness as their excuse. In Ireland common assaults are about 75 per cent., proportionately to the population, more frequent than in England; this is characteristic of the Irish, as is also the fact that aggravated assaults on women and children are of much less frequency than in an equal population in this country.

Under the head of “stealing and attempts to steal” in the English returns, 44,908 persons were proceeded against summarily in 1865, being an increase of 2·5 per cent. on the number for the preceding year. These cases would, for the most part, have been sent for trial at the sessions before the year 1856. For offences under local acts, under the vagrant laws, under highway, railway and carriage laws, under the police and licensed victuallers’ acts, against the game laws, &c., large numbers of persons are annually charged before the justices; and on conviction they are, for the most part, discharged on the payment of fines, a few being committed to prison for short terms.*

There are no statements on official authority as to the number of acting magistrates in England and Wales, or of the number of

* The punishments for offences determined summarily in the year ended 29th September, 1865, will serve as an example:—

		Number of Cases.		Number of Cases.
<i>Imprisoned—</i>				
Above 6 months		61	Fined.....	196,265
6 months and above 3 months		2,758	Whipped	470
3	2	7,353	To find sureties or recog- nizance	12,621
2	1 month	10,519		
1	14 days	23,082	Delivered to army or navy	1,621
14 days and under		28,429	Other punishments	28,130
In reformatory and indus- trial schools.....		1,573		
Total committed		73,775	Total convicted.....	312,882

The proportion committed to prisons or reformatories was 23·6 per cent.

courts or places at which petty and special sessions are held. In 1862, according to a calculation by Mr. Oke, there were 7,770 acting magistrates for counties, and 1,890 for cities and boroughs, including police and stipendiary magistrates, and the number of courts and places in which magisterial business was transacted, was about 2,000. Authoritative returns are wanted on these points as well as in relation to the civil cases determined by the justices.

By adding together the numbers apprehended for indictable offences, and proceeded against summarily—always bearing in mind that many individuals are reckoned several times over as fresh charges are brought against them—we have the aggregate of 3,534,213 cases for the eight years 1858-65. This will give an annual average of 441,776 cases. For the first four years of this period, viz., 1858-61, the annual average is 421,523 cases, and for the second four years (1862-65) it is 462,030. The prices of food (bread excepted) were higher in the later years, and the cotton famine may also have had some effect in increasing crime; but although dearness of provisions and want of employment doubtless largely augment the criminal returns, the increase of minor offences is spread over many items which can hardly be influenced by those conditions. The following are the numbers proceeded against for offences of *all kinds* for each of the years referred to:—

1858	434,492	1862	438,228
'59	419,929	'63	452,273
'60	409,780	'64	469,647
'61	421,891	'65	487,973
<hr/>		<hr/>	
Total of four years	1,686,092	Total of four years.....	1,848,121
<hr/>		<hr/>	
Annual average	421,523	Annual average	462,030
<hr/>		<hr/>	

Of the persons thus proceeded against in 1865, about 38 per cent. were of previous good character; 34 per cent. were of characters unknown to the police; leaving 28 per cent. as the proportion of those known as thieves or otherwise of bad character. But the proportions of these three classes of persons taken into custody for *indictable* offences, were respectively 21, 27, and 52 per cent.

VIII.—Returns of Coroners' Inquests.

We now pass on to the returns made by the coroners, which are classed in "Judicial Statistics" under the head of police, the inquest being regarded as a preliminary investigation of a police nature. There are 330 coroners in England and Wales who furnish returns, many of these functionaries acting for small boroughs and liberties, where the need of a separate coroner is not very obvious, whatever may be said in favour of maintaining the ancient right of

appointment in such places, instead of merging small jurisdictions in larger ones. In 1865 *less than ten* inquests were held by each of eighty-three coroners; several held no inquests. The largest number held during the year by one coroner (or his deputy), was in the eastern division of Middlesex, viz., 1,590. Besides the number of inquests, distinguishing the cases of legitimate and illegitimate children of 1 year and under, and between 1 year and 7 years, and those of young persons and adults, the coroners return the “finding of the jury” under a few general heads, which might with great advantage be extended.

There has been a considerable increase in the number of inquests of late years, mainly owing to the increased frequency of fatal accidents through railways, mines, machinery, fires, and crowded streets, yet in the coroners’ returns there is no distinction of these various agencies; and we must be content with the bare statement that the finding of the jury was “accidental death” in a large proportion of the cases, with respect to which information of great interest to the public might easily be afforded.

The total inquests, and the verdicts of accidental deaths, in the eight years ended 1865, were as follows:—

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
Total in-quests....	19,846	20,531	21,178	21,038	20,591	22,757	24,787	25,011
Accidental death....	8,947	9,241	9,225	9,213	9,005	9,952	10,997	11,397

While the inquests in 1865 show an increase of more than one-fifth upon those in 1862, the cases of accidental deaths had increased more than one-fourth in the three years. But it should be remembered that there are many deaths by accident with respect to which the coroners, in the exercise of the discretion allowed them by law, do not hold inquests, there being no reason to suspect foul play.* In other cases, where a large number of persons are killed by explosion in a mine, a railway collision, or other great and appalling accident, the coroner holds his inquest upon a view of a few of the bodies only, usually such as may first be identified by

* This practice saves expense, but it gives rise to considerable difficulty in the registration of deaths; the only legally qualified informant of a death, where no inquest has been held (except in the case of bodies “found exposed”) being a person present at the death, or in attendance during the last illness, or the occupier or an inmate of the house or tenement. For want of such an informant, some deaths cannot be registered, not only in the case of accidents, but also where the deceased persons have lived alone, and their last illness has terminated suddenly, no person having been present at the death or in attendance.

the friends of the deceased, and every purpose connected with the full investigation of the circumstances which may have led to the accident is thus sufficiently attained. In the late terrible accident at the Oaks Colliery, near Barnsley, inquests were held on twelve bodies only, upwards of four hundred men and boys having perished.

In the returns of inquests, columns were added in 1862 to distinguish the cases of infants under 1 year, legitimate and illegitimate, and the number of verdicts of murder returned in the cases of such infants. The total number of verdicts of murder in the years 1858-65, was as follows:—

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
Wilful murder	183	204	268	210	221	270	246	227
Whereof were— Infants aged 1 } year and under }	not	disting	uished		124	166	203	175

It thus appears that out of 964 cases of murder in the last four years, 668, or 70 per cent., were cases of infanticide; and it is a very striking and melancholy fact that, according to the finding of coroners' juries in 1863-65, there were as many child murders in the county of Middlesex as in all the rest of England and Wales. The violent deaths of new-born children in the district of Central Middlesex have been so numerous as to attract general attention; and the coroner, Dr. Lankester, has persistently urged that the question should be taken up by the Government or the legislature, with a view to ascertain whether any existing feature of the law encourages the crime of infanticide, and whether any new measure would promise a diminution.* There can be no doubt that the present state of the law as regards infanticide is extremely unsatis-

* "As far as my own observation goes," says Dr. Lankester, "it would appear that this crime is more frequent amongst women in domestic service than in any other class. The strongest motive for destroying the infant, appears to be the shame and disgrace of having an illegitimate child. This is only attempted when pregnancy has not been discovered, and when the delivery has been effected in concealment. If the child has been thus secretly destroyed, the first opportunity is taken to cast the murdered babe into the streets. Where the dead child is secreted on the premises, discovery generally takes place. In several instances the mothers of newly-born dead children have been brought before the coroner's court, and although when the mother is not discovered there is no reluctance on the part of the jury to return a verdict of wilful murder, there is considerable hesitation in doing so when the mother has to be sent to take her trial for murder."—"Social Science Review" for June, 1864, p. 520.

Dr. Lankester has suggested that the coroners' returns should distinguish the number of inquests on the bodies of newly-born children found exposed.

factory, two years' imprisonment for concealment of birth being practically the only existing punishment. The Capital Punishment Commissioners received much evidence on this subject, and in their report, issued last year, recommended that an act should be passed making it an offence, punishable with penal servitude or imprisonment at the discretion of the court, maliciously to inflict serious injury upon a child during its birth, or within seven days afterwards, in case such child subsequently died; and that no proof that the child was born alive should be required. Where the child was more than 7 days' old, the offence to fall within the class of “murders of the second degree,” and be punishable by penal servitude for life, or for not less than seven years, at the discretion of the court.*

Open verdicts, as they are termed, such as “found dead,” “found drowned,” &c., are frequently returned by the juries, in the absence of positive indications of the manner in which death has occurred, when the verdict, founded upon a knowledge of all the circumstances—if such knowledge could be obtained—would probably have been one of wilful murder. Accurate *post mortem* examinations are therefore of the utmost importance in the discovery of the true cause of death, and in preventing the object of the coroner's inquest from being defeated; it would also further the detection of crime if competent toxologists were to be found in all the principal towns.

The verdicts of manslaughter show an increase from 689 in the four years ended 1861, to 903 in the subsequent four years.

With respect to suicides the information given in these returns is incomplete and unsatisfactory. The mere lumping together of the total number of cases, without reference to the agency employed—whether poisoning, hanging, drowning, cut-throat, gunshot wounds, &c.—and without regard to the ages of the suicides, is simply a contrivance to deprive the facts of the greater part of their statistical value and interest. From the volumes of “*Judicial Statistics*,” we can only extract the bare numbers, viz.:—

* “Report of the Capital Punishment Commissioners,” 1866, p. 1. Lord Cranworth and other witnesses were of opinion that infanticide by the mother for the purpose of concealing the birth of her illegitimate child should no longer be murder, but that the murder of a legitimate child by the mother should remain capital. Other witnesses thought that infanticide, under any circumstances, should still be treated as murder. In France the murder of newly-born and unregistered children is made most criminal.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.
Males	909	910	961	961	938
Females	366	330	396	363	346
Total suicides	1,275	1,240	1,357	1,324	1,284

	1863.	1864.	1865.	Annual Average.
Males	1,048	978	1,028	967
Females	337	359	369	358
Total suicides	1,385	1,337	1,397	1,325

The constant recurrence of very nearly the same number of cases of self-murder in each year, with nearly the same proportion of the sexes, is one of those most remarkable illustrations of the truth which statistical researches have established, that actions determined by the absolute will of individuals, who are perfectly free agents, are nevertheless found to be in the aggregate subject to regular and immutable laws. Even with eight years' observations before us, we should not be open to any charge of presumption in inferring the probability that in England, during this present year, about 1,330 unhappy persons—about 970 men and 360 women—will be in such a state of mind that they will resolve to take their own lives, and will succeed in doing so. Others will attempt suicide, but will not succeed in destroying themselves.

The number of suicides annually, on an average of the eight years 1858-65, is 1,325, being in the ratio of 65 to every 1,000,000 of the total population, or 98 to every 1,000,000 males, and 34 to every 1,000,000 females living. The tendency to commit suicide is therefore nearly three times as great amongst men as amongst women.

From abstracts of 5,415 deaths from suicide in the years 1852-56,* contained in the "Nineteenth Annual Report of the Registrar-General," it appears that hanging is the most common form of suicide, cut-throat and drowning standing next in the order of frequency. Eight-tenths of the suicides remarked upon were committed in one of these three ways. Poisoning and drowning are the modes preferred by women; hanging, cut-throat, and gunshot wounds by men. The poisons are very various, seventeen

* The suicides distinguishable in the registers of these years, were supposed to be less by a tenth than the actual numbers, owing to a want of precision in stating the result of the inquest.

being specified; laudanum is the most common form, then follow prussic acid, arsenic, essential oil of almonds, and oxalic acid; the last being extensively used in various branches of industry, is easily procurable. Dr. Lankester states that in a large number of cases, habits of intoxication have preceded the act of suicide.*

Under the provisions of an Act passed in 1860,† the coroners are now paid by salaries instead of by fees; and although, owing to the increased number of inquests, the aggregate cost of these inquiries has increased, yet the average expense per inquest was less for 1864-65 than for several preceding years. The following are the amounts:—

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
	£	£	£	£
Total cost	58,974	60,921	73,024	65,250
Average cost of each } inquest	£ s. d. 2 19 5	£ s. d. 2 19 4	£ s. d. 3 8 11	£ s. d. 3 2 —

	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
	£	£	£	£
Total cost	65,103	71,018	72,598	74,915
Average cost of each } inquest	£ s. d. 3 3 3	£ s. d. 3 2 5	£ s. d. 2 18 7	£ s. d. 2 19 10

Out of many thousand inquiries of coroners' juries, the number of verdicts returned upon which criminal proceedings could be taken is, no doubt, very inconsiderable. In 1865, for instance, out of 25,011 inquests, there were only 227 verdicts of murder (some being against persons unknown) and 282 of manslaughter, together 507 verdicts imputing crime against living persons; so that about 50 inquests were held for one verdict upon which further proceedings could be adopted in the interests of justice. Only 273 persons charged with murder or manslaughter were committed for trial in the year ended 29th September, 1865. Looking at these facts and at the costliness of inquests (to which the expense attending the subsequent trials must be added), Mr. Greaves, Q.C., has objected to the coroner's jury as “an expensive and cumbrous machinery

* Each country has its fashion in the methods of committing suicide; the fumes of charcoal are preferred in France, and disembowelment in Japan. M. Guerry, in his work already adverted to, has dealt with a total of 85,364 suicides in France in the years 1835-60, and has shown that, contrary to the popular idea, November is one of the least suicidal months, the maximum of cases being in June, then May, July, April, and August.

† 23 and 24 Vict., cap. 116.

“for the detection of crime,”* and is of opinion, I believe, that the office of coroner should be abolished. I do not know whether the learned gentleman proposes any substitute for the coroner’s jury, or whether he would require the magistrates to investigate suspected crimes without having any persons charged before them; but in any case, I apprehend, few persons will concur in his views with respect to this ancient and popular court of inquiry. The expense of inquests is really a small consideration compared with the satisfaction and security to society resulting from an investigation of the circumstances connected with sudden and violent deaths. To cite the words of Dr. Farr:—†

“Virtually, it is true that of twenty-one thousand inquiries only a few lead to the committal and conviction of criminals; but the utility of the inquest is not to be proved by the number of *crimes committed*, but by the number of *crimes prevented*; and it is gratifying to find that homicide is comparatively rare in England and Wales. Few countries present so low a proportion of murders. Yet, the instant that the provisions of the law are disregarded, and inquests are not freely held, such homicidal eruptions break out as the poisonings in Essex, the atrocities in Norfolk, which Sir James Graham feared ‘had resulted from an interference with the duties of the office of coroner,’ and the systematic poisonings of Palmer, in Staffordshire, who was executed in the year 1856. The increase of subtle poisons lying for sale in the shops, the increase of life insurance, and the immense number of violent deaths in England, demand the observance of all the existing safeguards of life.”

IX.—*Results of Criminal Proceedings.*

Having in a previous part of this paper traced the proceedings from the apprehension of the suspected criminals to their committal for trial by the magistrates, we have now to follow up the prisoners to trial, and to indicate the results, as well as the cost, of the prosecutions. According to the police returns, 20,014 persons were committed or bailed for trial in the year ended 29th September, 1865; but the tables at pp. 45—50 of “Judicial Statistics,” refer to 19,614 persons “committed or bailed for trial in the year 1865;” that is, I presume, for the year ending 31st December. There is the same want of harmony here as in other parts of “Judicial Statistics,” as to dates. The following are the committals stated for each of the eight years 1858-65:—

1858	17,855	1862	20,001
'59	16,674	'63	20,818
'60	15,999	'64	19,506
'61	18,326	'65	19,614

For many years before 1858 the committals were received as the sole criterion of the state of crime, and the numbers from year to

* “Law Magazine” for June, 1866.

† Registrar-General’s Nineteenth Annual Report, Appendix.

year were compared and conclusions drawn from the actual increase or decrease without regard to the population. These were the materials which alone were available to M. Guerry and others, who endeavoured to investigate the state of crime in England. No information as to summary convictions, or as to the supposed numbers of the criminal classes was then obtainable. The effect of the Criminal Justice Act has been to reduce the committals since 1855 by more than one-fifth, so that unless the summary convictions are taken into account, the data are necessarily incomplete. It will be sufficient to give the results of the proceedings against those for trial *on indictment* in each of the years 1858, 1861, and 1865:—

	1858.	1861.	1865.
Acquitted and discharged.....	4,576	4,423	4,812
Detained as insane	33	24	32
Sentenced to death	53	50	20
„ penal servitude	2,130	2,450	2,081
„ imprisonment	10,609	10,971	12,095
„ reformatories	225	262	263
„ whipping, fine, &c.	229	146	281
Total	17,855	18,326	19,614

The proportion acquitted and discharged on the ground of non-prosecution, bills ignored by the grand jury, or a verdict of not guilty on trial, was 25·5 per cent. for 1858; 24·1 per cent. for 1861; and 24·6 per cent. for 1865. During the last quarter of a century the proportionate number of acquittals has sensibly diminished; it is still, however, nearly one-fourth of the committals, a proportion too high to allow of the supposition that the preliminary investigation of the charges is everywhere conducted with uniform care. But the returns do not enable us to judge whether the ratio of acquittals to commitments is highest in counties or in boroughs; nor are the sexes distinguished, so that we are unable to test the accuracy of the prevailing notion that acquittals largely preponderate on the side of the females, owing to the unwillingness of juries to convict female prisoners when there remains a shadow of doubt as to their guilt.

It is much to be regretted that the *ages* of the persons committed for trial are no longer given in the Home Office returns, although the importance of age as an element in all inquiries concerning the amount and progress of crime is obvious. The former criminal tables established the fact that more than one-fourth of all the offenders were between the ages of 20 and 25; the tendency to commit crime at that quinquennial period of life being quadruple that

at other periods. It follows that although in two different counties or boroughs the tendency to crime at the respective terms of life may be precisely the same, yet, should there be a difference in the distribution of the population according to ages, any calculation in which the element of age is not considered must lead to the fallacious conclusion that the tendency to crime in one locality is greater than in the other. Without the ages of the criminal offenders, as well as of the population, no investigation of the relative amount of crime in different districts can be safely attempted. In the Irish returns the ages of the persons committed for trial are given, and their state of instruction also; it is to be hoped that the same information will shortly be found, as formerly, in the English tables.

In Ireland the ratio of acquitted and discharged to those placed on trial is much higher than in England; in 1865 it was 42·9 per cent., and in the previous three years 41·0, 46·0, and 43·0 respectively. This is the more remarkable as the executive Government, by the law officers and crown solicitors, takes charge of the criminal prosecutions in all serious cases at assizes and quarter sessions in Ireland.

The details of the offences charged against the persons sent for trial, show an increase in offences against the person (Class I), chiefly under the heads "assaults and inflicting bodily harm" and "common assaults;" the committals for the last five years (1861-65) are 12,146, against 10,043 in the preceding five years (1856-60). Pursuing the comparison, we find in offences against property with violence (Class II) 10,521 cases in the last five years, against 9,351 in the previous period. Since 1862, however, when the maximum (2,321) was reached, these offences have been decreasing, especially in the serious items of burglary and house-breaking. The offences against property without violence (Class III), so far as they are proceeded against by indictment, comprise about two-thirds of all the committals. In the last five years there were 67,146 persons charged against 62,825 in the preceding five years. Cases of horse, sheep, and cattle stealing have decreased; but there has been an increase in "simple larceny." Malicious offences against property (Class IV) were respectively 1,816 and 947 in the two periods compared; the cases of arson being nearly as 2 to 1 (1,206 against 628) in the last five years. The Class (V) forgery and offences against the currency, shows a decrease from 4,212 in the five years ended 1860, to 3,408 in the subsequent period; notwithstanding the increased facilities which the extension of education affords with regard to the mechanical part of forgery, the offences of forging or uttering forged instruments and forged bank notes have actually diminished. Of the offences not included in

the foregoing (Class VI), there was an increase in the quinquennial period, 1861-65, under the head "riot, breach of the peace, and "pound breach," and a decrease under "perjury," and "keeping "disorderly houses." During the ten years referred to, there was an entire absence of treasonable and political offences in England.

It is impossible to look through the tables without being struck with the petty character of a large proportion of the offences still sent for trial at sessions and assizes. The successful operation of the statutes which of late years have extended the summary jurisdiction of the magistrates would seem to justify a further extension of the principle, whereby a great saving to the country in the cost of prosecutions would be effected, and prompt justice would be done without the necessity of a re-hearing of the case before grand and petty juries, or the confinement of the offender often for many weeks before his trial. More than 50 per cent. of the offences tried on indictment before juries at sessions are cases of simple larceny, or larceny from the person without violence, assaults on peace officers, and common assaults. Were these determined summarily by the justices, the average cost of prosecution would be about 1*l.* per case; at quarter sessions the cost would be seven or eight times as much, besides loss of time to prosecutor, witnesses, and jury.

Restricted as the indictable offences now are by the transfer of many offences of minor significance to the summary jurisdiction of the magistrates, the sentences passed upon persons convicted of crimes of the graver class, and the manner in which these sentences are, in a large number of cases, commuted or remitted, sufficiently show the mildness of our penal laws, or at least the lenity with which they are administered. Transportation, which, with a short interval, had been in operation for one hundred and forty years, was abolished and penal servitude substituted in 1857.* The convicts, with the exception of a small number sent to Western Australia and Gibraltar, have been left at home; and under the Act of 1864, by which sentences of penal servitude for less than five years are discontinued, convicts released before the expiration of their terms are furnished with licences on which certain conditions

* By statute 20 and 21 Vict., cap. 3. The power to remove convicts to the penal colonies is reserved by the statute, and is applicable to all those sentenced to penal servitude, but it has been exercised only to a very inconsiderable extent. Although the abolition of transportation was, as Mr. Redgrave remarks ("*Judicial Statistics*," 1857, p. xvii), governed by necessity as much as policy, it relieved this country of large numbers of the most dangerous criminals, amounting, according to his calculation from the original lists of offenders transported from England to Australia, to 108,715 persons (94,532 males and 14,183 females) from 1787 to 1857.

are endorsed, and every licence holder must report himself at the police station of the locality to which he removes, within three days after his arrival, and once in each month afterwards.* On the aggregate convictions for indictable offences in the eight years 1858-65, the recorded sentences give the following results:—

	Total (8 Years).	Annual Average.	Proportion per Cent. to Total Convictions.
Sentenced to death	313	39	·28
<i>Sentenced Penal Servitude—</i>			
For life	132	16·5	·12
Above 15 years	172	21·5	·15
15 years and above 10 years	486	61	·43
10 „ under	18,943	2,368	16·88
<i>Sentenced Imprisonment—</i>			
Above 2 years	65	8	·06
2 years and above 1 year	8,524	1,068	7·59
1 year „ 6 months	25,845	3,230	23·03
6 months „ 3 „	27,827	3,478	24·79
3 „ „ 1 month	18,491	2,311	16·47
1 month and under	7,773	971	6·93
Detained in reformatory schools	1,999	250	1·78
Fine, or discharge on sureties	1,668	208	1·49
Total convicted	112,238	14,030	100·00

The capital sentences were in the proportion of 0·28 per cent. to the total number convicted; the sentences of penal servitude were 17·58 per cent., and the sentences of imprisonment (including those sent to reformatories) were 80·65 per cent. In 1865 there was a reduction in the number of sentences of penal servitude for periods of less than five years, and a corresponding increase in those of imprisonment, as the effect of the Act of 1864 already adverted to. Some addition must be made to the number of sentences of penal servitude for the sentences of death commuted to secondary punishment.

* The conditions endorsed on the licence are (1) that the holder shall preserve it and produce it when called upon by a magistrate or a police officer; (2) that he shall abstain from any violation of the law; (3) that he shall not habitually associate with notoriously bad characters; (4) that he shall not lead an idle and dissolute life without visible means of obtaining an honest livelihood. Any breach of these conditions forfeits the licence, and if upon conviction for any crime, he will be liable to imprisonment for any term of penal servitude that may be then unexpired. At present opinions are various as to whether the Act is working beneficially to the public and the convicts themselves. See Parliamentary Paper, No. 188, Sess. 1866.

Of the 313 sentenced to death in the eight years, 1858-65, the convictions for murder and the executions were as follows:—

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	Total.	Annual Average.
Convicted } of murder }	16	18	17	26	28	29	32	20	186	23
Executed.....	11	9	12	15*	15	22	19	7	110	14

* Including one for an attempt to murder, seriously endangering life; there had been no previous execution, except for actual murder, since 1841.

Only 2 women are included amongst the 110 criminals who suffered the extreme penalty of the law; the last woman who was executed was Catherine Wilson, for poisoning her landlady (it was believed that she had previously poisoned four other persons), in 1862. In the previous year a man was executed for a very brutal *attempt to murder*, in which, however, the intended victim escaped death and was the means of convicting her assailant. This may be considered to be the last execution which will take place in England where murder has not been actually accomplished.

From the particulars given respecting the 110 criminals executed, I find that they were of the following ages:—

Ages	18	19	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60 and upwds.
M. and F. 110	3	6	32	25	14	11	8	4	2	32	2

It thus appears that more than one-fourth of the criminals executed were of the age 20 and under 25. Thirteen of them were foreigners, including six seamen executed for murders on the high seas.

In the Introductory Reports to “Judicial Statistics,” besides the ages of the criminals condemned to suffer death, some particulars of their crime, and the supposed motive of it, are given. I have analysed the statements in the 110 cases; but the observations are so limited, compared with those published with respect to France, in M. Guerry’s work on Moral Statistics, that I do not trouble the Society with the results.*

In Ireland the executions in the four years ended 1865, were 4, 4, 2, and 4, respectively. In Scotland the numbers for the same years were 0, 0, 2, and 1.

Cost of Criminal Proceedings.—The cost of prosecutions, which is disbursed through the county and borough officials, is paid by Her

* M. Guerry has analysed and tabulated the motives, combined with sex, degree of instruction, and status of the accused and the victims, in 21,322 cases of murder, developing the results by an elaborate system of notation.

Majesty's Treasury out of the sum annually voted by Parliament for the purpose. In "Judicial Statistics," the returns of cost of prosecutions are always one year in arrear of the other matters under the head of criminal proceedings. The following are the sums paid for prosecutions at the assizes and sessions, and for proceedings under the Criminal Justice Act and Juvenile Offenders' Acts, for the years 1858, 1861, and 1864, which are a fair sample of the rest :—

	1858.	1861.	1864.
Number of cases on indictment at } assizes and sessions	17,402	16,198	16,994
Costs	£144,383	£124,625	£134,902
Average each case	£8 5s. 11d.	£7 13s. 10d.	£7 18s. 10d
Cases on summary proceedings } under Criminal Justice and Juve- nile Offenders' Acts	14,404	15,653	15,796
Costs on summary proceedings	£14,094	£14,497	£15,426
Average each case	19s. 6d.	18s. 6d.	19s. 4d.

The average cost of cases tried at assizes is double that of the cases tried at sessions. It may be safely concluded that there is no profuse expenditure of public money on prosecutions, that is, if the complaints of insufficient allowances to witnesses, &c., may be accepted as evidence on this point. The increased facilities of travelling may have some bearing on this question.

X.—Statistics of Prisons.

The statistics of prisons will now be briefly noticed. And here we may find some consolation in the fact, that not only do our laws afford the most complete safeguards against the wrongful detention of any person in prison, but also that those who are deprived of their liberty in due course of law are confined in well-regulated gaols and prisons, suitably constructed, and provided with means for ensuring the proper discipline and classification of the prisoners. Penal discipline, as an important branch of the science of jurisprudence, has engaged the attention of some of the most enlightened minds in this country. The theoretical systems proposed by such men as Howard, Bentham, and Mill, have long since been superseded by a totally different method of treatment, founded on the actual results of careful observation and experience. The principles which govern the modern management of our prisons are founded, first, upon a due regard to the deterring effects of *punishment* upon the criminal classes and the community at large; and, secondly, upon the expediency of adopting a kind of punishment which shall effect this, and at the same time *correct* and *reform* the criminal

himself. To use the words of the late Sir Joshua Jebb, “The end “to be kept in view is not the *visionary* idea of extirpating crime, “but the Christian idea of restricting it within the narrowest possible “limits.”

Since the disagreeable necessity has arisen of having to retain within our own shores a cumulative number of criminals, prison discipline, secondary punishments, and other kindred subjects, have been much discussed. Various royal commissions have collected valuable evidence upon these questions, and fresh legislation, although mostly of a tentative character, has been the result. Reference has already been made to some of the provisions of the Penal Servitude Amendment Act of 1864. Another statute, the Prisons Act of 1865, which was passed to give effect to some of the recommendations of the Lords’ Committee presided over by Lord Carnarvon, contains some valuable provisions for the improvement of prison discipline.* These are indications of progress in reference to this difficult subject.

The prisons in England are comprised under the following distinct classes: (1) the local gaols for counties, boroughs, and liberties; and (2) the Government convict establishments; in addition there are (3) the reformatory and industrial schools, to which youthful offenders are sent; and (4) the State criminal lunatic asylum at Broadmoor. Of local prisons there are 144 included in the returns for 1865, viz., 83 county gaols, 58 city and borough gaols, Newgate prison (city and county), the debtors’ prison, Whitecross Street, and the county court debtors’ gaol at Halifax. The convict prisons are 11, the reformatory schools 52, and industrial schools 32.

It is odd that the fittest day in the year for making up the prison statistics should not yet have been determined upon; the returns for the local prisons being made up to 29th September in each year, while those for the convict establishments are for the years ended 31st March. Surely no great amount of additional labour would be imposed if, instead of these varying dates, the 31st *December* in each year were fixed upon as a convenient date to work up to in all the *statistical* abstracts relating to crime and criminals. For financial purposes the accounts might be closed and the balance struck on any one of the *dies fasti* of the kalendar,

* This statute abolishes the distinction between gaols and houses of correction, enacts the discontinuance of certain small prisons, and in 104 clauses of “Regulations for the Government of Prisons,” gives minute direction for the security of prisoners, for their separation, and for ensuring their health. When a prisoner is discharged, the visiting justices may order a sum, not exceeding 40s., to be paid to him or to the treasurer of a prisoners’ aid society, to be employed for the prisoner’s benefit; and the justices may also furnish the prisoner with the means of returning by rail, or otherwise, to his place of settlement.

to which it might seem good to the authorities to give the preference.

Local Prisons.—The local prisons receive, in addition to convicted criminals and prisoners committed for trial, a considerable number of persons who are remanded, and afterwards discharged, by the magistrates; also prisoners for debt and on civil process, and naval and military offenders. The following are the total and average number of commitments to local prisons (including many prisoners committed more than once), in the undermentioned quinquennial periods :—

	In the Five Years 1856-60.		In the Five Years 1861-65.		Proportion per Cent.	
	Total.	Annual Average.	Annual Average.	Total.	1856-60.	1861-65.
Remanded and discharged	63,824	12,765	10,371	51,854	9·7	7·5
For trial and on conviction (not previously in custody)	91,488	18,298	19,946	99,730	13·9	14·4
Convicted summarily	392,170	78,434	90,799	453,994	59·7	65·6
Want of sureties	16,274	3,255	2,922	14,612	2·5	2·1
Debtors, and on civil process	69,192	13,838	11,782	58,912	10·5	8·5
Military and naval offences	24,321	4,864	2,621	13,104	3·7	1·9
	657,269	131,454	138,441	692,206	100·0	100·0

Ages of Prisoners.—In Table II, Prisons, of “Judicial Statistics,” we find particulars of the “age, sex, and birthplace of the persons “(except debtors and military and naval prisoners) committed” to the different local prisons. The persons remanded and discharged, amounting to about 7·5 per cent of the whole, are included. In four out of eight columns in which the ages are stated, the terms of life (as “16 to 21,” “21 to 30,” &c.*) do not assimilate with those adopted for the census of the general population. Moreover, the returns are for the several prisons separately, and not for counties, as in the old Tables of Criminal Offenders. The ages of persons committed for trial at assizes and sessions are not distinguished; and as the prisoners convicted summarily of petty offences, and those remanded and discharged, are included in the same table with those committed for trial, the result is that we not only fail to

* The mode of stating the ages in the table in question—“16 to 21,” “21 to 30,” “30 to 40,” &c.—is inexact, and, if the forms used at the prisons have similar headings, very likely to lead to error. In which column would the governor of a prison return a prisoner aged 21, or another aged 30? If “16 to 21,” “21 to 30” are to be understood 16 *and under* 21, and *under* 30, why are they not so expressed?

obtain the ages of prisoners charged with the graver class of crimes, but we have, in many instances, the same individual, on being sent to prison on minor charges, brought into the table more than once. The Irish and Scotch returns give the ages of persons committed for trial.

Reference has already been made to the great importance of age as an element in the investigation of crime; and it was stated that about one-fourth of all the persons committed for trial in England and Wales were found, by the old tables, at the age of 20 and under 25. We have not the means of verifying this fact by the present returns; but from the classification of ages adopted we obtain the following results for the last two years, when the commitments to prison (exclusive of debtors, &c.) were respectively 127,006 and 126,038:—

	Proportion per Cent. of Males Committed.		Proportion per Cent. of Females Committed.	
	1864.	1865.	1864.	1865.
Under 12 years	1·5	1·5	0·5	0·5
12 to 16.....	6·6	7·4	3·4	3·4
16 „ 21.....	20·7	20·5	17·8	17·9
21 „ 30.....	32·3	32·2	35·7	35·1
30 „ 40.....	19·0	18·8	21·3	21·8
40 „ 50.....	11·3	11·3	13·6	13·6
50 „ 60.....	5·3	5·2	4·7	5·1
Above 60	2·7	2·8	2·2	2·4
Age not ascertained.....	0·6	0·3	0·8	0·2
	100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

It will be observed that the proportion of boys under 16 is more than double that of the girls under that age, and that the intensity of crime amongst females is not reached so early as amongst males. The commitments of juvenile offenders had fallen from 13,981 in 1856, to 10,329 in 1858; and for the last five years ranged as follows:—

1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
8,801	8,349	8,459	8,857	9,640

It appears that the increase in 1865 is chiefly in the counties of Middlesex, Surrey, and Lancaster, where the number of juvenile offenders sent to reformatories is proportionately small. In the metropolitan county, the police magistrates, who commit to these institutions, and the justices, who have the control of the funds

from which the allowances are made, possess a concurrent jurisdiction, which is said to work unsatisfactorily.

Birthplace of Prisoners.—Under this head the Home Office tables show the number of prisoners born in England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, in the Colonies and East Indies, and in foreign countries without distinction of particular States. In 1865 the proportions per cent. stood thus:—

	Males.	Females.
Born in England	80·9	70·6
„ Wales	2·5	3·3
„ Scotland	1·8	2·8
„ Ireland	12·3	21·9
„ colonies and East Indies ...	0·5	0·5
„ foreign countries	1·5	0·6
Not ascertained	0·5	0·3
	100·0	100·0

A slight decrease, as compared with previous years, appears in the Irish prisoners; but females from the sister island have a knack of getting into “trouble” so frequently as to form one-fifth of the female commitments. The foreign prisoners show an increase, as might be expected from the large addition of foreigners to our population of late years.*

Degree of Instruction of Prisoners.—Information concerning the instruction of the prisoners has long been entered in prison calendars, and published in the criminal returns, as showing the influence of ignorance upon crime. Perhaps a little too much stress has been laid on the results obtained on this head; for any statement as to the mere mechanical processes of reading and writing is obviously insufficient to indicate whether such an amount of education has or has not been received as would be likely to influence the moral character. No doubt crime, to a certain extent, co-exists with a considerable amount of what is termed plain education. But I am unable to assent to the remark of Mr. W. L. Sargant, in his valuable paper recently contributed to the Transactions of this Society,† that “all we hear popularly reported about the immediate connection of crime and ignorance, is contradicted by the laboriously formed opinion of Mr. Fletcher, who said that twenty years ago, the state of instruction among criminals ‘afforded but ‘feeble testimony in favour of much of the instruction then ‘given.’” In his estimate of the quality of the instruction within

* It was found at the last census that the subjects of foreign States, living in England and Wales, had increased from 50,289 in 1851, to 84,090 in 1861.

† *Statistical Journal*, vol. xxx, p. 88.

the reach of the labouring classes thirty or thirty-five years ago—for the paper was read before the Society in 1847, and must have referred to the instruction given some ten or fifteen years before—Mr. Fletcher was no doubt correct. In others of his papers, however, he dwelt upon the beneficial effects of education in reducing crime, and the alliance of all moral evils with ignorance;* while by shaded maps and elaborate tables he indicated the state of crime in the more or less instructed districts.†

The near connection between ignorance and crime appears to me to be established beyond all question. It cannot rest on mere popular report when we find 95 per cent. of the men and boys, and 97 per cent. of the women and girls, who are committed to prison, either entirely uninstructed, or able to read or to read and write very imperfectly. Taking the marriage register marks as affording the most trustworthy test of the progress of education available, Mr. Fletcher, Mr. Neison, and other inquirers into the subject, invariably found, after due allowance for differences in ages and sexes, that in those counties, or groups of counties, in which the proportion of person signing the marriage register with marks exceeded the average, there was also an excess of crime; and in those counties in which the least proportion signed with marks, the ratio of crime was considerably below the average of the whole of England. Although other conditions than simply education doubtless influence in some degree the amount of crime in the districts thus compared, the fact that a low state of instruction is always accompanied with an increased criminal tendency, while a higher degree of instruction is coincident with the opposite result, sufficiently shows that it is incumbent on the State to make vigorous efforts for the further extension of such a system of general education as will not only provide secular instruction but will conduce to the culture and elevation of the moral character of the labouring classes.‡

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. x, pp. 211, 212, 221.

† *Ibid.*, vol. xii, p. 151, *et seq.*

‡ Unless it be shown that the ignorance which prevails amongst those committed to prison is greater than amongst the general population, of course no proof is afforded of the greater connection of crime with ignorance than with instruction. The following proportions afford satisfactory evidence on this point :—

	Signed the Marriage Register with Marks.		Prisoners who could neither Read nor Write.		Prisoners who could Read, or Read and Write Imperfectly.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1864.....	23·3	32·4	33·6	38·8	59·2	57·8
'65.....	22·5	31·2	34·9	37·6	60·4	59·8

It is noteworthy, that the returns for the last ten years exhibit scarcely any variation in the proportion of wholly uneducated prisoners, thus indicating that the lowest classes have at present been little affected by the progress of education in the country. The following figures show the centesimal proportions since 1857, omitting each alternate year :—

	Neither Read nor Write.	Read, or Read and Write Imperfectly.	Read and Write Well.	Superior Instruction.
1857	35·5	58·0	5·1	0·3
'59	35·7	58·8	4·3	0·3
'61	34·4	60·6	4·0	0·3
'63	34·9	60·7	3·5	0·2
'65	35·5	60·2	3·2	0·2

The slight tendency to increase in the number of imperfectly instructed offenders is coincident with a gradual decrease in those who have been fairly educated. Criminals of superior instruction are exceptional, and now number only 2 in 1,000.

In Ireland, the proportion of offenders entirely destitute of education is higher than in England; so also, in a remarkable degree, is the proportion of those able to read and write well. The following is a comparison of the results for 1865 :—

	Neither Read nor Write.		Read, or Read and Write Imperfectly.		Read and Write Well.		Superior Instruction.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Ireland	40·4	53·4	30·8	24·5	25·4	21·4	0·8	0·1
England	34·9	37·6	60·4	59·8	3·7	1·9	0·2	—

In Scotland, the proportion of persons *committed for trial* who can neither read or write does not exceed 23 per cent., while about 74 per cent. read and write imperfectly.

Occupations of Prisoners.—The last of the particulars collected, bearing upon the social condition of the criminal classes, relates to their occupation. Many prisoners, no doubt, assume an occupation only to conceal their unlawful pursuits, and their claims to honest employment are not very closely investigated; the numbers classed as in occupations would therefore probably be overstated. In referring every prisoner to one of twelve heads, a rough attempt at classification is made. “Labourers, charwomen, and needle-women,” are classed together, agricultural labourers not being distinguished from others; nor are farm servants distinguished

from other “domestic servants.” The item “no occupation,” may include alike the professional thief and the self-dubbed “gentleman” fresh from Haymarket orgies; the prisoners thus classed were 21·0 per cent. of the whole in 1858, 18·9 in 1860, 16·2 in 1862, and 17·2 in 1864. The “labourers, charwomen, and needlewomen,” were in the following proportions: 41·6 in 1858, 43·3 in 1860, 46·0 in 1862, and 47·1 in 1864. The “factory workers” were in the following proportions in the four years just named: 4·8, 4·5, 5·5 (in 1862), and 5·1. In the returns for 1865, the number of prostitutes sent to prison is for the first time distinguished, and the number of females classed as of no occupation has fallen from 16,144, in the previous year, to 10,371; the offenders of this class were, therefore, previously included amongst those of “no occupation.”

As the information in the prison calendars is much more specific regarding the real or supposed occupations of the prisoners, it appears desirable that a better and more extended classification should be adopted for the purposes of “*Judicial Statistics*.” I will only add, on this head, that the stated occupations of the entire prison population, given in the same detail as for the rest of the community, and combined with ages and sexes, will be found recorded in the Census Reports for 1851 and 1861.

The returns relating to local prisons, in addition to the details already noticed concerning the number, class, and character of the persons imprisoned, contain information of much interest, as to the disposal of the prisoners, the amount of sickness and mortality amongst them, the state and capacity of the prisons, the punishments inflicted for prison offences, the establishments, and the costs of the prisons. To enter upon these topics, even for the purpose of indicating the materials for discussion which the returns afford, would be impracticable within my present limits of space; and it would be tedious, if not unprofitable, to place before the Society a mere string of figures without comment.

Government Convict Prisons.—These prisons, constructed and maintained at the sole expense of Government, are used for the imprisonment of convicted criminals under sentence of penal servitude, the greater proportion of whom it was formerly the practice to transport to a penal colony, or to confine on board the hulks. The prisons, now eleven in number, are Millbank and Pentonville for the separate confinement of convicts undergoing the first stage of discipline, the former for both sexes, and the latter for males; Portland, Portsmouth, and Chatham, for convicts undergoing the second stage of discipline, employed on public works; Dartmoor and Woking for invalids, juvenile convicts also being confined in the former; Brixton, Fulham, and Parkhurst are used for females

who have undergone their probationary term at Millbank. The remaining establishment is Broadmoor, the prison for lunatic convicts, which has only recently been completed and occupied for its intended purpose. Since 1850 the whole administration of convict prisons has been vested in a board of three official directors, appointed by, and responsible to, the Secretary of State for the Home Department. The late Major-General Sir Joshua Jebb, as the first chairman of that board, exercised the chief influence in the organisation of the present system of prison discipline; and he has left his mark behind in the great advance which, mainly through his zeal and ability, has been made within the last fifteen years in this difficult branch of jurisprudence. Lieut.-Colonel Henderson is the present chairman of the directors of convict prisons.

As a general rule, the convicts are removed from the county or borough prisons, after medical examination, to the Government prisons. In certain local prisons, however, convicts are confined under contract with the Government.

The worst and most hardened of our criminals are confined in the Government prisons, including those sentenced to the most severe of the secondary punishments, or upon whom the capital sentence has been commuted. Of their bodily and mental condition, our esteemed colleague Dr. Guy, F.R.S., has given an interesting account in describing the results of a census of the population of the convict prisons in England, taken in 1862 by the authority of Sir Joshua Jebb.* Their ages were found to be older than the general prison population, and younger than the adult population of the whole country. Of the males 26·8, and of the females 27·0 per cent. were aged 20 and under 25; at the next period of age, 25 and under 30, the proportion of males was 22·2, of females 23·6 per cent. With regard to the fitness or unfitness of the male convicts for labour, 48 per cent., or somewhat less than half, were considered as able-bodied, robust, vigorous men; 24 per cent. as healthy, and able to do a full day's work, although not robust; about 23 per cent. as fit only for light labour or occasional work; whilst the bed-ridden, those ill in bed, and those ill and under treatment, but not at work, formed a small section of the whole, amounting to about 5 per cent. But the most remarkable fact elicited by this inquiry, was the prevalence of bodily deformities or defects, scrofula and chronic diseases of the lungs or heart,

* "Transactions of the Association for the Promotion of Social Science," 1862, p. 561. The prison census included all the prisoners who slept within the walls of the several convict prisons on the night of 31st March, 1862, and the heads of inquiry were (1) the ages of prisoners; (2) the condition of male prisoners in respect of their fitness or unfitness for labour; (3) the mental and bodily condition of prisoners male and female; and (4) the relation of that condition to the crimes committed. The observations embraced 5,952 males, and 1,218 females.

affections of the mind and nervous system, amongst the convicts, to the extent of about 40 per cent. of the males, and 24 per cent. of the females.* The superior physical condition of the female convicts Dr. Guy attributes to the circumstance "that many women "are drawn within the vortex of the criminal population by a "course of life arising out of the possession of personal attractions, "of which health constitutes no inconsiderable part." Other facts with reference to the relation which the mental and bodily condition of prisoners bears to the offences committed by them, and to the rate of mortality prevailing among convicts, have been brought to light, I believe for the first time, in Dr. Guy's valuable paper.

In "*Judicial Statistics*" the returns relating to convict prisons afford but meagre information as compared with those for the local prisons. They do not show the ages of the convicts, their crimes, sentences, degree of instruction, birthplace, or former occupations; and this omission is the more to be regretted, as the particulars given on these heads for the local prisons comprise large numbers of persons convicted summarily of light offences, many of whom being unable to pay in purse, pay in person; and many others are kept in prison mainly from inability to procure bail. Nowhere do we find separately stated in "*Judicial Statistics*" these material facts regarding the class of criminals who stand charged with or who have been convicted of the graver description of crimes.

The hulks, in which the convicts were formerly crowded until the means of their removal to the penal colonies could be found, and in which also male convicts sentenced to transportation, who were unfit, from physical or other causes, to be sent to the colonies, were confined, were not entirely superseded until 1857. On 29th September, 1858, the convicts in the Government prisons amounted to 7,628 (6,556 males and 1,072 females); the removals during the year included 550 males sent to Western Australia, 840 to Bermuda and Gibraltar (to be afterwards brought back to this country to be discharged); 2,138 convicts were discharged at home, of whom only 312 received tickets-of-leave. In the two preceding years, no less than 3,814 convicts had been released on tickets-of-leave, on the ground that having undergone the regulated portions of their sentences in separate confinement and on the public works, they were entitled to look forward to their

* The percentage proportions of convicts labouring under deformities or defects congenital or acquired from disease or accident, were—males 24·6, females 13·5; of those affected by scrofula and diseases of the lungs and heart, males 11·1, females 8·5; of the weak-minded, insane, and epileptic (after the elimination of such of the prisoners as had from time to time been sent to lunatic asylums), males 4·1, females 2·4.

discharge on tickets-of-leave on removal to a penal colony; to keep faith with them, therefore, the ticket-of-leave system was adopted in this country. The number of prisoners confined in the convict prisons, will be best shown from the daily averages given in the returns, which since 1863 have been made up for the year ending 31st March, instead of 29th September as formerly. This change was made to adapt the returns to the period to which the accounts of the expenditure are made up, without much regard to the fact that the returns for the county and borough prisons are made up to 29th September in each year.

Total Daily Average of Convicts in Government Prisons, 1858-66.

Year ended	Males.	Females.	Total.
29th September, 1858	6,855	1,004	7,859
" '59	6,588	1,161	7,749
" '60	6,450	1,249	7,699
" '61	6,134	1,223	7,357
" '62	6,474	1,201	7,675
" '63	6,696	1,359	8,055
31st March, '65	6,143	1,275	7,418
" '66	5,971	1,213	7,184

These averages require a few words of explanation. For the years subsequent to 1861, the numbers include convicts imprisoned at Wakefield and in other county or borough prisons under contract with Government, previously included only in the local prison returns; these prisons are now reduced to two, Wakefield and Taunton, the contracts with five others having ceased.* The system appears to have arisen in 1858 from the want of room in the Government prisons for the increased number of convicts to be provided for. Male convicts sentenced in Scotland to penal servitude are sent to Perth to undergo the first stage of discipline, and are afterwards removed to the public works prisons in England, and are not distinguished in the returns for those prisons from the convicts sentenced in England. Moreover, naval and military prisoners are also received in the convict prisons. It is, therefore, apparent that the numbers shown in the English convict prison returns cannot correspond with the numbers sentenced in England to penal servitude.

As the daily average number of convicts in prison will, of course, depend upon (1) the number received within the year from county and borough prisons, from Scotland, from Bermuda and Gibraltar

* The "daily averages" of convicts confined in local prisons for the last four years, in the table were 468, 547, 685, and 569; for the previous years the numbers are not given.

(previous to discharge), together with naval and military prisoners; and (2) the number disposed of by removal, discharge, or death. I subjoin a table showing the state of the convict prisons, with details of the disposal of the prisoners according to the last three returns published :—

	Number of Convicts during the Year ended					
	29th September, 1863.		31st March, 1865.		31st March, 1866.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
In confinement at the com- mencement of the year.....	6,558	1,218	6,142	1,243	5,967	1,274
Received from local prisons, Scotland, Bermuda, &c.	3,012	429	2,724	447	2,753	354
General total in the year	9,570	1,647	8,866	1,690	8,720	1,628
<i>Removed to—</i>						
Western Australia	727	—	261	—	845	—
Gibraltar	210	—	220	—	—	—
Bermuda	—	—	—	—	—	—
Reformatories	55	8	55	5	14	77
Lunatic asylums, &c.						
<i>Discharged in the Year—</i>						
On termination of sentence....	262	34	170	45	142	41
„ tickets-of-leave	1,458	306	2,087	338	1,867	391
„ commutation of sentence	12	1	3	—	2	—
„ pardon	12	—	9	4	13	—
Died	87	23	87	24	110	17
Committed suicide	1	—	6	—	2	—
Escaped	3	—	1	—	1	—
Total disposed of during the year	2,827	372	2,899	416	2,996	526
Total remaining in prison at the end of the year	6,743	1,275	5,967	1,274	5,724	1,102
Total daily average during the year	6,696	1,359	6,143	1,275	5,971	1,213

It thus appears that the number of males “disposed of” in each year is not much less than half the prison population of that sex, which therefore changes in little more than every two years. The proportionate number of female convicts disposed of in each year is smaller.

To show the number of convicts released on tickets-of-leave since the establishment of the system of penal servitude, the number discharged on termination of sentence, and the number sent beyond sea, I append a table, which, however, is not complete, as, owing to a

change of date in the returns, no information is given for the half-year ended 31st March, 1864:—

Year ended	Total Discharged on Tickets-of- Leave.	Total Discharged on Termination of Sentence.	Male Convicts Removed beyond Sea.		
			To Western Australia.	To Bermuda.	To Gibraltar.
28th September, 1856	2,892	20	498	346	376
" '57	922	168	532	300	200
" '58	312	1,769	550	640	200
" '59	252	1,747	224	—	140
" '60	581	1,924	—	281	—
" '61	1,645	1,350	610	—	—
" '62	2,380	242	466	—	657
" '63	1,764	296	727	—	210
31st March, '65	2,425	215	261	—	220
" '66	2,258	183	845	—	—
Total	15,431	7,914	4,713	1,567	2,003

Of the 15,431 convicts discharged on tickets-of-leave 13,253 were males and 2,178 females. The total discharged on termination of sentence includes those brought back from the military stations of Gibraltar and Bermuda.

The net total expenditure for the ten convict prisons (exclusive of Broadmoor) for the year ended 31st March, 1866, was 227,132*l.*; and 3*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.* is stated as the net annual cost per prisoner. The value of productive labour paid over to the Exchequer is set down in the return as 5,659*l.*; but no credit appears to be given for labour on public works, which, if brought into account, would materially affect the average annual cost of each prisoner. For the preceding year the net annual cost per prisoner is stated at 3*l.* 7*s.* 3*d.*

Reformatory Schools.—The beneficial working of the reformatory system has now been confirmed by several years' experience; and although opinions still differ upon matters connected with the management and discipline of reformatories, the fact that they are generally more successful than prisons in reclaiming juvenile offenders will now hardly be questioned. These institutions were first recognised by the legislature by a statute passed in 1854 (17 and 18 Vict., cap. 86, amended by 19 and 20 Vict., cap. 109), empowering courts and justices before whom offenders under 16 years of age are convicted of any offence punishable either on indictment or on summary conviction to direct, in addition to the sentence passed, that they shall be sent on its termination to a reformatory school which has been certified by the Secretary of State, after the report of an inspector of prisons, for a period of

not less than two years nor more than five years; the costs of their maintenance to be defrayed by Her Majesty's Treasury, or to be recovered where practicable from the parents or step-parents of the offenders. In 1855, the commitments to these schools were 176; up to 30th September, 1856, twenty-nine schools had been certified, and 534 boys and girls were committed within the year. The total number of youthful offenders committed to these schools in twelve years, since the passing of the first above-mentioned statute, is 10,124 (viz., 8,280 boys and 1,844 girls), giving an average of 844 for each year. In the year ended 29th September, 1865, the commitments were 1,185, of which number 261, or 22 per cent., were after conviction on indictment, and 924, or 78 per cent., upon summary conviction. The precocity of juvenile offenders is shown by the fact that 4·5 per cent. of the whole number were committed for housebreaking, shopbreaking, and burglary; 86·5 per cent. for larcenies; the remainder for various offences, including horse-stealing, sheep-stealing, robbery on the highway, arson and wilful burning, assault, forgery, &c.

In the fifty-two reformatory schools (including four school ships or hulks) the number of offenders under detention on 29th September, 1865, was 3,388, viz., 2,709 males, and 679 females.

Mr. T. B. Lloyd Baker, in a paper read before this Society in November, 1860,* remarks:—

“As to boys, so far as I can ascertain from the magistrates and police of different counties and towns, the race of six or ten times convicted boys—the regular habitual skilful thieves—have nearly ceased to exist, excepting in London. Nearly every boy on a second, if not a first conviction, is sent to a reformatory, and even if he be not reformed, even if he leave the reformatory with no sounder principle of honesty than that with which he entered it, at the very least he cannot be practising stealing and corrupting others while he is digging on the farm.”

Unfortunately the returns still show a large proportion of twice and oftener convicted offenders (for 1865 about 53 per cent. against 47 per cent. on their first conviction), but none of the boys had been previously committed more than four times, which could not be said of the girls. Considering the large proportion without any parental control and belonging to the most neglected class of the community—the street Arabs—it is not surprising that 50·8 per cent. of the boys and 43·3 per cent. of the girls sent to reformatories in 1865 could neither read nor write, notwithstanding the work done by ragged schools.

The principle recognised by the Reformatory Schools Act has been further extended by the establishment, under the Act of 20 and 21 Vict., cap. 48, of industrial schools for children taken into custody on charges of vagrancy. Their detention is authorised

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. xxiii, p. 429.

until they attain the age of 15 years, but they may be discharged at any time on its being shown that suitable provision has been made for their care and employment. There are thirty-one of these schools (inclusive of the "Havannah" ship at Cardiff), in which 1,054 children—782 boys and 272 girls—were under detention on 29th September, 1865. In the Middlesex Industrial School at Feltham, established under a local Act for the reception of male offenders only, under 14 years of age, 556 boys were in custody on the above date.

Mr. Lloyd Baker, in the paper to which I have referred, established a *primâ facie* case in support of the inference that, coeval with the rise of reformatories, there had been a remarkable diminution of juvenile crime. As the materials now exist for a more extended inquiry, I hope he will return to the subject, and favour us with the results of a further investigation, for, on the aggregate of all England, I am unable to discover any reduction in the number of juvenile offenders since the year 1858.

Criminal Lunatics.—The returns relating to this class of prisoners, complete the information regarding criminals contained in "Judicial Statistics." The criminal lunatics consist of (1) those who are found on trial to have been insane at the time of committing the offences with which they were charged, and are consequently acquitted and to be kept in strict custody until Her Majesty's pleasure respecting them shall be known; (2) those who on being arraigned are found to be then insane and unfit to be tried by a jury empanelled to determine that issue, or those who on their commitment for trial are, to avoid the necessity of obtaining the verdict of a jury, certified to the Secretary of State to be insane under statute 3 and 4 Vict., cap. 54; (3) those committed by justices on their being apprehended under appearances of insanity, denoting a purpose to commit crime; and (4) those who have become insane while undergoing their sentences in prison. All these lunatics are detained in lunatic asylums, hospitals, and licensed houses, the expense of maintaining them being charged on county, borough, or parish rates, or defrayed out of the public revenue, or out of private funds of the lunatics and their friends according to circumstances.

On the 29th September, 1855, the number of lunatics so detained was 565—448 males and 117 females. The number under detention on 29th September, 1865, was 1,032—795 males and 237 females, of whom 425 were confined in the new Government establishment for lunatic convicts at Broadmoor. A very large proportion of the criminal lunatics were charged with the most serious crimes (including 177 for murder and 152 for attempts to murder), and average very lengthened periods of detention.

XI.—*Conclusion.*

I regret that the exigencies of space render it impossible to present even a moderately complete exposition of the various facts relating to the criminal population and state of crime in the country, as contained in the official returns under consideration. These returns, defective as they are in some respects, deserve to be diligently studied; and they are gradually forming a body of new information upon subjects of great social interest, although Mr. Redgrave modestly characterised them as “only the dry bones” which make, indeed, the frame work, but require to have the “muscle and skin added to give a correct outline.”*

From a consideration of the whole subject of the present paper, I arrive at the following conclusions:—

1. That the annual publication of the English “*Judicial Statistics*,” although it has of late years greatly improved, is still defective in several particulars, the defects being such as might easily be removed.

2. That while the establishment of a complete system of *Judicial Statistics* for Ireland, uniform with that of England, is a subject of congratulation, the want of such a system for Scotland is hardly creditable to the country.

3. That as regards crime in England, there is no reason to believe that the criminal classes are on the increase, notwithstanding the release at home of more than 15,000 convicts on tickets-of-leave since the introduction of the punishment of penal servitude.

4. That there is no evidence to show that crimes of the graver class are increasing.

5. That there has been of late a considerable increase in the number of offences punished summarily, which may in part be attributed to the increased vigilance and efficiency of the large body of trained police now maintained in the country.

* *Statistical Journal*, vol. xxiii, p. 428.

APPENDIX.

TABLE A.—*England and Wales. State of Crime according to the Recent Returns.*

Years.	Population in Middle of Year. (000's omitted.)	Police Establishment.		Police Returns of				
		Total Strength.	Proportion per 10,000 of Population.	Criminal Classes at Large.		Houses of Bad Character.	Indictable Offences Reported.	
				Number of Persons.	Proportion per 10,000 of Population.		Number.	Proportion per 10,000 of Population.
1857	19,257,	19,187	10	not stated	—	not stated	57,273	30
'59	19,687,	20,597	10	135,766	69	26,276	52,018	26
'61	20,119,	21,413	11	123,049	61	23,916	50,809	25
'63	20,554,	22,622	11	126,139	61	22,710	52,211	25
'65	20,991,	23,250	11	116,626	56	20,689	52,250	25
'66*.....	21,210,	23,728	11	113,566	54	20,249	50,549	24

Years.	Population in Middle of Year. (000's omitted.)	Indictable Offences.				Summary Convictions.	
		Persons Committed or Bailed for Trial.		Convictions.		Number of Persons Convicted.	Proportion per 10,000 of Population.
		Number.	Proportion per 10,000 of Population.	Number.	Proportion per 10,000 of Population.		
1857	19,257,	20,269	11	15,307	8	233,759	121
'59	19,687,	16,674	8	12,470	6	257,810	131
'61	20,119,	18,326	9	13,879	7	263,510	131
'63	20,554,	20,818	10	15,799	8	283,641	138
'65	20,991,	19,614	9	14,740	7	312,882	149
'66*.....	21,210,	18,849	9	14,254	7	339,091	160

* The returns for 1866 have been issued since the paper was read, but it has been thought useful to add the figures for that year.

TABLE B.—*England and Wales. Committals for Indictable Offences, 1857-66.*

Classes of Offences.	Persons Committed or Bailed for Trial.					
	1857.	1859.	1861.	1863.	1865.	1866.
1. Offences against the person	2,158	2,019	2,058	2,655	2,577	2,317
2. „ property with violence	2,286	1,546	1,970	2,198	1,979	1,908
3. „ property without } violence	14,120	11,481	12,695	14,075	13,465	13,203
4. Malicious offences against property	204	189	230	519	330	276
5. Forgery, and offences against the } currency	959	796	771	717	577	504
6. Offences not included in the above } classes	542	643	602	654	686	641
Total	20,269	16,674	18,326	20,818	19,614	18,849

Classes of Offences.	Proportion per 100,000 of Population.					
	1857.	1859.	1861.	1863.	1865.	1866.
1. Offences against the person	11	10	10	13	12	11
2. „ property with violence	12	8	10	11	9	9
3. „ property without } violence	73	58	63	68	64	62
4. Malicious offences against property	1	1	1	3	2	1
5. Forgery and offences against the } currency	5	4	4	3	3	2
6. Offences not included in the above } classes	3	3	3	3	3	3
Total	105	84	91	101	93	88

On the STATISTICS of CIVIL PROCEDURE in ENGLISH COURTS of LAW.
By WILLIAM JOHN BOVILL, ESQ., Barrister-at-Law.

[Read before the Statistical Society, 18th June, 1867.]

CONTENTS:

	PAGE		PAGE
I.—Introduction	427	F.—In the County Palatine of Lancaster	446
II.—Object of Paper	428	G.—In the Court of Admiralty ...	446
III.—Synopsis of the Civil Tribunals of England	428	H.—In the Divorce and Matrimonial Courts	447
IV.—Proceedings of the Various Tribunals	431	I.—In the Court of Probate	447
A.—Proceedings in the Superior Courts of Law	431	K.—In the Ecclesiastical Courts	448
B.—In the County Courts	437	L.—Before Judicial Committee of Privy Council	449
C.—In Local Courts of Ancient Jurisdiction	439	M.—Before the House of Lords...	450
D.—In the Court of Bankruptcy	440	V.—Expenses of Tribunals	450
E.— ,, Chancery ...	442	VI.—Concluding Observations	451

I.—*Introduction.*

THE general interest taken in the subjects and proceedings of civil lawsuits is scarcely less than that in criminal cases.

This arises, no doubt, partly from the pleasure we all derive from the details of anything ingenious, adventurous, or uncommon, qualities not unfrequently displayed as well in the questions arising in civil lawsuits as in the mode of treating them.

The main source of this interest, however, arises from the fact that the proceedings in civil lawsuits afford the most apt and impressive, and in many cases the only means by which those not professionally concerned can acquire a practical knowledge of the law, and this interest is heightened by the feeling, unperceived perhaps but not the less influential, that what is our neighbour's case to-day may be our own to-morrow, and that in the chances of life we may become involved in circumstances, if not exactly similar, yet the right adjustment of which may depend on the principles established by the cases under our view.

Civil proceedings, however, whether we look to the subject or the numbers of them, possess but little of the interest which attaches to criminal proceedings as a branch of judicial statistics; and in this aspect may be deemed an unfruitful subject, and I cannot hope to bring before the Society any information of so interesting a kind as that on the statistics of criminal proceedings so ably propounded to us at our last meeting by the diligence and skill of Mr. Hammick.

But the statistics of civil procedure, though they do not bring

so prominently in view the moral condition of the community, or lead so naturally to the suggestion of remedial measures as do the statistics of crime, and so do not attain the degree of interest thus imparted to the latter, are of real value as illustrating to a sensible extent the general temper, the comparative prosperity or adversity, and the moral condition of the community.

The numbers of actions for debt, of cases in the Divorce and Matrimonial Court, of proceedings under the Act for winding-up insolvent joint stock companies, and of cases in the Bankruptcy Courts, are obvious illustrations of the extent to which the proceedings in civil cases may indicate the general temper, the comparative prosperity or adversity, and the moral tone of society.

Cases of the two latter kind, indeed, have of late had a melancholy prominence, corresponding with the financial difficulties which have weighed on the community.

It may, perhaps, be suggested that cases coming under the jurisdiction of the Divorce and Bankruptcy Courts (though our legislators retain them strictly in the category of civil proceedings) might be viewed as partaking, to some extent, of a criminal aspect; but it is not within the scope or object of this paper to enter upon questions of such a nature.

II.—*Object of Paper.*

The general interest felt in the subjects of civil lawsuits, is amply satisfied by the very accurate, as well as elaborate and well selected reports of the proceedings in cases of civil suits which form so prominent a portion of the intelligence of the daily press; and it is the object of the present paper, with the aid afforded by the elaborate returns periodically issued from the Home Office, and those recently printed by order of the House of Commons, to place before the Society some facts which it is hoped may be of interest and of value in relation to the subjects and numbers of the suits and proceedings before the civil tribunals of the country, to the results of these proceedings, and to the cost at which the administration of civil justice is maintained.

III.—*Synopsis of the Civil Tribunals of England.*

To those not practically occupied in the profession of the law, an enumeration of various civil tribunals of the country may not be unacceptable.

These consist of the courts of—

Queen's Bench,
Common Pleas, and
Exchequer,

each presided over by five judges.

The Court of Exchequer Chamber, under the presidency of all the judges.

The Court of Chancery, under the presidency of—
 The Lord Chancellor,
 The Lords Justices,
 The Master of the Rolls, and
 The three Vice-Chancellors.

The County Courts, fifty-nine in number, each under the presidency of its own judge.

The few remaining local courts for the recovery of small debts, each under the presidency of its own judge.

The Stannaries Court of Cornwall and Devon.

The Court of Probate, } one
 The Court for Divorce and Matrimonial Causes, } judge.

The Admiralty Court, }
 The Ecclesiastical Court, } practically the same.

The Court of Bankruptcy, under commissioners and registrars in the London Courts, and in cases of small amounts under the jurisdiction of the county court judges.

The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, and
 The House of Lords.

The Courts of Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer, the Court of Exchequer Chamber, and the Court of Chancery, constitute what are usually called the superior courts of law and equity.

By the subdivision of the business of the superior courts of common law among the several judges, distinct tribunals are in effect constituted: so that each of these courts may be practically estimated as comprising (including the work of chambers) five tribunals, or fifteen in all.

No business is originated in the Exchequer Chamber, which is a court of appeal from the decisions of the courts of common law, intermediate between them and the House of Lords. Nor is any business (except matters in lunacy) originated in the courts of the Lord Chancellor or the Lords Justices, which are courts of appeal from the Master of the Rolls and the Vice-Chancellors, intermediate between them and the House of Lords.

Thus we have the ordinary judicial business of the country, relative to cases of property of all kinds, except shipping (which in some cases are under the exclusive jurisdiction of the Admiralty

Court), conducted by what may be practically regarded as fifteen distinct tribunals in the superior courts of common law ; and by four tribunals in the superior courts of equity ; and by the fifty-nine tribunals of the county courts ; by the few remaining local courts, and the Stannaries Court.

The business of the Court of Probate, of the Divorce and Matrimonial, Admiralty and Ecclesiastical Courts, and the Court of Bankruptcy, conducted each by its distinct tribunal.—The commissioners and registrars in bankruptcy being, in fact, in the first instance judges, though not so called.

The business in lunacy, conducted by the Masters in Lunacy, under the superintendence of the Lord Chancellor and the Lords Justices.

The intermediate courts of appeal are, in cases of common law, the three courts themselves sitting in banco, and the Court of Exchequer Chamber ; and in Chancery, the courts of the Lord Chancellor, and the Lords Justices : the House of Lords being the tribunal of last resort from these courts, and from the Court of Probate, and the Divorce and Matrimonial Court ; and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, being the tribunal of last resort from the Admiralty, and Exchequer courts ; and from the colonies ; and in cases of patents.

It would far exceed the limits of any paper which could be brought under the notice of the Society, to attempt a statement of the different jurisdictions of those various tribunals. It may be noticed, however, that the Court of Queen's Bench, which is the superior court of common law of the kingdom, had by its original constitution, and still retains, exclusive jurisdiction on all questions of the rights of the crown, except in revenue cases, the superintendence of civil corporations and magistrates, and the general supervision of all inferior jurisdictions ; but was not a tribunal accessible to the community at large, on questions arising between subject and subject ; on which, however, this court assumed and acquired a jurisdiction, by a legal fiction that the rights of the crown were in question. That the Court of Common Pleas had by its original constitution, exclusive jurisdiction in all actions between subject and subject ; and especially in actions relating to land ; and that the Court of Exchequer had, and still retains, exclusive jurisdiction on all questions relating to the revenues of the crown : but had, by a similar fiction to that adopted by the Court of Queen's Bench, assumed a jurisdiction on questions between subject and subject. The practice and jurisdiction of all these courts have now, for some time past, been assimilated by Act of Parliament, in all cases, except those before mentioned, as peculiarly within the jurisdiction of the Courts of Queen's Bench and Exchequer.

A general idea of the respective functions of the other courts may be gained from their titles.

IV.—*Proceedings of the Various Tribunals.*

The nature and number of the various cases brought before the several tribunals are shown by the returns, the earliest in relation to civil proceedings being for the year 1858.

We are indebted for these to the energy and good judgment of Mr. Samuel Redgrave, to whom we had been indebted for the returns relating to criminal procedure for some previous years.

A.—*Proceedings in the Superior Courts of Common Law.*

The purely crown business of the Court of Queen’s Bench is not extensive, though the questions which do arise in relation to it are usually of considerable gravity and importance.

The nature and numbers of these cases are shown in the following table, and seem to invite no special remarks, except that they appear gradually to decrease in number :—*

	1865.	1864.	Average 1859-63.
On writs of mandamus made absolute	10	17	20
„ quo warranto information filed	10	1	5
„ writs of habeas corpus, application for writs	47	34	39
„ writs of certiorari	66	87	83
Judgments and executions	8	6	18
On grand jury bills	—	13	—
„ informations <i>ex officio</i>	—	—	2
„ orders of sessions removed into Queen’s Bench	24	13	27
„ special cases from quarter sessions (12 and 13 } Vict., cap. 45)	13	18	11
„ special cases on proceedings before justices } (20 and 21 Vict., cap. 43)	34	48	47

All actions in each of the courts of common law are now originated by writ of summons, and the writs issued in the years 1865, 1864, and on the average for the period comprising the years 1859 to 1863 inclusive, were as follows :—

	1865.	1864.	Average for 1859-63.
	119,097	113,158	100,349

* Following the method adopted in the returns, the year 1865 being the last for which the returns are made up, is in this and all the subsequent tables placed first—columns being added for 1864 and for the averages for 1859-63.

Those proceedings resulted in the issue of writs of *capias*, for personal arrest before judgment, in the following number of cases :—

	1865.	1864.	Average for 1859-63.
	424	520	556

showing a very small and decreasing proportion, or about 0·35 per cent., in which this stringent measure was resorted to.

The appearances entered were in—

	1865.	1864.	Average for 1859-63.
	33,723	30,116	26,624

and as the appearances entered indicate the number of cases originally defended, it results that in 85,374 out of 119,097, or 71·4 per cent. of the cases in 1865, a settlement was brought about by the mere issue of the writ.

The returns show an equally interesting result in the number of cases entered for trial. Out of the 119,097 suits commenced in the year 1865, 4,649 only survived to be entered for trial, and of these 3,663 only were actually tried, as appears from the following table :—

Causes Entered for Trial and Tried.

	1865.		1864.		Average of Totals, 1859-63.	
	West-minster.	Nisi Prius.	West-minster.	Nisi Prius.	West-minster.	Nisi Prius.
Remanets from previous year	238	—	—	—	—	—
Entered for trial	2,956	1,624	2,501	1,322	2,222	1,243
Trials	—	1,168	—	952	—	942
Defended.....	1,064	—	965	—	970	—
Undefended	283	—	254	—	192	—
Withdrawn, struck out, &c.	1,535	437	1,126	339	985	256
Adjourned, &c.	—	—	—	8	—	—

In addition to the above, there were 57 cases entered for trial on circuit in the Common Pleas of Lancaster, 4 in the Common Pleas of Durham, and 8 issues from the Court of Probate, all of which were tried, with the exception of 20 from the Common Pleas of Lancaster, and 1 from the Common Pleas of Durham, which were withdrawn or struck out.

The subjects of the suits entered for trial at Westminster, and on circuit, in the year 1865, were as follows :—

On promissory notes, bills of } exchange, &c.	298	Trespass relate to land, houses, &c.	169
On bonds	32	Questions on wills	2
For goods sold and delivered ...	369	For breach of promise of mar- } riage.....	44
„ work and labour done	307	Seduction.....	14
„ money paid, advanced, or lent	128	Libel	69
„ money received	40	Slander	60
„ compensation for personal } injuries under Lord Camp- } bell's Act.....	222	Malicious prosecution	16
For compensation from other } injuries from negligence..... }	135	False imprisonment	58
Replevin or distress	19	Assault.....	70
Trover or detinue	144	Interpleader issues	55
For breach of contract	325	On the case.....	31
Upon special contracts	144	Nuisance	12
For breach of warranty.....	31	Breach of covenant	55
„ infringement of patents.....	8	For recovery of rent	22
„ for recovery of land (eject- } ments)	157	On life and fire policies.....	6
		Other suits	87
		Total	2,939

showing a large proportion, viz., those comprised in the first six items, being nearly 40 per cent. of the whole, to have originated in simple money demands.

The results of these trials, as shown in the succeeding table, cannot but be regarded as satisfactory.

	1865.	1864.	Average of 1859-63.
Verdict for plaintiff	1,742	1,565	1,462
„ „ subject to special case	49	38	86
„ by consent, with reference	162	175	137
„ for defendant	343	275	343
Jury discharged without verdict	43	35	31
Juror withdrawn	92	86	80
Nonsuit	136	80	98
Stet processus, venue changed, record with- } drawn, &c.	451	335	207
Total	3,018	2,589	2,394

Showing that out of 3,018 cases brought to trial in 1865, 1,742, or 57·4 per cent., resulted in a verdict for the plaintiff; while 343 only, or rather more than 11 per cent., resulted in a verdict for the defendant.

The numbers of judgments obtained differ considerably from the number of causes defended, as shown by the appearances entered, and more widely from the number of causes tried.

This arises from judgments being, in the great majority of cases,

obtained on preliminary interlocutory proceedings, as is shown by the following table, and in many cases being confessed on warrants of attorney, or other process, without any action commenced.

Judgments.

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1859-63.
<i>On Judges' Orders—</i>			
For default of service	2,275	2,135	1,916
On affidavit „	28,043	26,755	25,579
<i>On Demurrers—</i>			
For plaintiff	38	27	29
„ defendant	13	10	22
<i>On Postea Writ of Trial and Writ of Inquiry—</i>			
For plaintiff	1,729	1,494	1,510
„ defendant or nonsuit	374	354	450
By default for plaintiff	4,539	4,028	3,659
On non prosecution for defendant	166	155	159
<i>On Special Cases—</i>			
For plaintiff	23	10	17
„ defendant	10	8	15
<i>On Judges' Orders to Stay Proceedings—</i>			
Warrants of attorney, certificates of arbi- } trators, &c.	1,230	1,588	2,279
Total judgments	38,440	36,564	34,625

showing that out of 38,440 judgments signed, 28,043, or nearly 73 per cent. of the whole, were obtained by the plaintiff on affidavit of service, without any further proceeding than the service of the writ; and that of the remainder, 1,729 were obtained by the plaintiff on trial, and 4,539 by the plaintiff on default.

Matters become far more serious when once judgment has been obtained; 27,468 executions having been issued against the property and persons of the defendants, exactly reversing the order at the commencement, and giving 71 per cent. of cases enforced by process against 29 per cent. settled without.

The forms in which these executions were carried into effect, so as to adapt them to the particular remedy sought, was as follows:—

	1865.	1864.	Average for 1859-63.
Writs of fieri facias	19,140	17,676	17,138
„ capias ad satisfaciendum	7,689	7,242	7,933
„ possession	425	415	179
„ elegit	175	170	115
„ exegi facias	36	57	51
„ capias utlagatum	3	14	10
Total executions	27,468	25,574	25,726

showing the serious number of 7,689, or more than one-fourth of these executions, directed against the person in the year 1865.

The following table, showing the amounts for which verdicts were obtained in 1,625 actions, shows the small amounts for which actions continue to be brought in the superior courts, notwithstanding the cheaper and more summary remedy afforded by the county courts.

Number of each Class of Amounts.		Total.
Above £5,000		17
£5,000 and above £3,000		15
3,000 ,, 2,000		14
2,000 ,, 1,000		36
1,000 ,, 500		84
500 ,, 300		99
300 ,, 200		98
200 ,, 100		187
100 ,, 50		281
50 ,, 20		437
20 and under		357

And the total amount recovered was..... 535,556*l*.

showing that 1,075, or nearly two-thirds of the whole number of these actions, were brought to recover sums under 100*l*., and that the amount involved in each of these 1,625 actions would be, on the average, under 330*l*.

The judgments obtained on verdicts, not of course those in which final judgment has been signed either by consent or the order of the court, are subject to revision by each of the courts sitting in banco on motions for new trials, or to enter or alter verdicts, or for nonsuit or arrest of judgment, or “non obstante veredicto,” and the returns show that there were applications of this nature in each of the courts, with the following results in 1865, the number of cases under each division in the preceding year, and the average of five years, being stated for comparison.

Applications.	1865.	1864.	Average for 1859-63.
Refused	95	128	114
Rule nisi granted	212	220	241
,, absolute granted on payment of costs	17	8	102
,, ,, with question of costs reserved	{ 63	92	
	8	50	
,, discharged.....	97	106	107
Where court divided.....	4	2	3

Thus it will be seen that in 307 cases, being about one-eleventh of the cases tried, there were appeals, and that in 192 cases, or nearly two-thirds of them, they were either disallowed in the first instance or on argument.

A large and important class of the business of the courts is transacted in chambers, and this is shown in the returns; but as this is incidental to, and arises out of, the actions brought, it is foreign to the object of this notice.

The Court of Exchequer Chamber, which is the Court of Appeal from the other courts sitting in banco, is composed of the judges of all the courts; the rule being that those only shall sit who are not attached to the court from which the judgment is appealed.

By the returns it appears that 76 cases of error and appeal were lodged in this court in the year 1865. That 65 cases, including some remnants from 1864, were set down for hearing, and 52 of them heard or disposed of; and that in no less than 36 cases out of these 52, or 71 per cent., the judgments of the courts below were affirmed.

	Total.
Writ of error allowed	—
Memorandum of error lodged	40
Notices of appeal lodged.....	36
	—
	76
	—
<i>Set Down for Argument—</i>	
Errors.....	24
Appeals	25
Remanets from 1864.....	16
	—
	65
	—
<i>How Disposed of—</i>	
Errors :	
Judgments affirmed	16
„ reversed	7
Stet processus entered	1
Venire de novo	—
Struck out.....	1
Standing for judgment	—
Appeals :	
Judgments affirmed	20
„ reversed.....	2
Venire de novo	—
Struck out.....	5
	—
	52
	—
Remanets and standing for judgment	13
	—

The appeals to this court being in many cases appeals of cases previously appealed to the respective courts sitting in banco, it seems well worthy of consideration whether, with the existence of the House of Lords as the ultimate court of appeal, it can be either necessary or expedient to maintain these two courts of appeal,

exercising to a great extent the same functions, and closely connected in practice and procedure.

B.—In County Courts.

Until a recent period (the year 1846), our ancient Saxon tribunals, the County Courts, had fallen into abeyance, and, with the exception of some courts of conscience and request, and other local courts, which had been established by Parliament for the recovery of small debts, and differed in their powers and were limited in the area of their jurisdiction, and of the powers vested in the justices of settling questions of wages, and disputes between master and servant, the remedies for the recovery of small debts were so expensive and dilatory as practically to amount in many cases to a denial of justice.

Under the provisions of an Act of Her present Majesty, passed in the year 1846, the county courts have been reconstituted on their present footing; and if any proof of the wisdom and necessity of this measure were required it would, I think, be found in the returns before us, the chief results of which are as follows:—

County Courts.

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1859-63.
Total plaints entered, including the cases } sent from the superior courts	782,849	738,481	809,501
<i>Causes Determined—</i>			
With a jury	823	838	910
Without a jury	433,160	401,334	428,279
	433,983	402,172	429,189
<i>Judgments—</i>			
For plaintiff	253,635	236,758	287,395
" by consent or admission	163,161	147,855	167,993
" by default.....	471	464	873
Nonsuit	8,364	8,440	9,324
For defendant	8,352	—	—
	433,983	402,172	474,762
<i>Judgment Summonses—</i>			
Issued	88,835	76,613	120,687
Heard	47,226	42,398	57,851
<i>Warrants of Commitment—</i>			
Issued	24,428	23,096	26,199
Debtors imprisoned	6,346	6,529	8,511
<i>Executions against Goods—</i>			
Issued	133,589	124,804	119,755
Sales made	3,739	3,610	4,317
Total amount for which plaints entered	£1,847,110	£1,760,384	£1,930,957

County Courts—Contd.

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1859-63.
<i>On Judgments Obtained by Plaintiffs on Original Hearings—</i>			
Amount of debts	£926,602	£980,755	£954,156
„ costs	£37,717	£38,383	£39,730
Total amount of fees on all proceedings.....	£257,875	£244,841	£250,708
<i>Number of Cases in which Judgments were Obtained—</i>			
40s. and under	300,158	278,034	297,481
5l. and above 40s.	88,309	80,649	85,319
10l. „ 5l.	30,257	28,840	30,875
20l. „ 10l.	11,760	11,233	12,897
50l. „ 20l.	3,486	3,405	3,867
By agreement above 50l.	13	11	—
	433,983	402,172	—

With reference to this table, the return contains, among others, the following introductory and explanatory remarks.

The number of plaints entered shows an increase of 44,368, or 6 per cent. upon the number in 1864, but is less than the number in 1863 by 16,405 or upwards of 2 per cent.

The proportion borne by the number of causes determined in court to the total number of plaints entered is 55·4 per cent., leaving 44·6 per cent. as the proportion of those settled out of court. Little variation appears in these proportions from year to year; in 1864 they were respectively 54·4 and 45·6 per cent., in 1863, 55·3 and 44·7 per cent.

Of the judgments given, 96·2 per cent., against 95·9 per cent. in 1864, were for the plaintiff; 1·9 per cent. against 2·1 per cent. in 1864 were nonsuits; 1·9 per cent. against 2·2 per cent. in 1864 were for the defendant. For 1863 these proportions were 95·9, 2·11, and 2·0 per cent. The number of debtors imprisoned gives 1 for 123 of the number of plaints entered; for 1864 the proportion is 1 to 113. For the average of five years, the proportion is 1 to 95.

The total amount for which plaints were entered shows an increase of 86,726*l.*, or 5 per cent. above the amount in 1864, and 8,361*l.* above the amount in 1863; but is less than the average for the five years 1859-63 by 83,847*l.*, or 4·3 per cent. The average amount for each plaint entered is 2*l.* 7*s.* 2*d.*

The amount of debts for which judgment was obtained is only half (50·2 per cent.) the total amount for which plaints were entered; in 1864 the proportion was 55·7 per cent.

The amount of costs shows a continued decrease; the amount of

fees was higher by 13,034*l.*, or 5·3 per cent., than the amount in 1864, but less by 5,525*l.*, or upwards of 2 per cent., than in 1863.

The costs and fees together give an average of 13*s.* 7*d.* for each cause determined, against 14*s.* 1*d.* in the preceding year. For each of the years 1865 and 1864, the cases in which judgment was obtained for 40*s.* and under were 69·1 per cent. of the total number of causes determined.

In the year 1865 three matters were heard, and three orders made, under the Charitable Trusts Act, the numbers having been two in the preceding year. Under the Act of the 21 and 22 Vict., cap. 85, protection orders to wives deserted by their husbands were registered in 470 cases, in seven cases the orders were discharged. In the preceding year 590 orders were registered. The number of orders in the five years 1859-63 gives an average of 599.

The equitable jurisdiction recently (by the Act of 28 and 29 Vict., cap. 99), conferred on these courts in cases in which the value of the subject-matter in dispute is under 500*l.*, did not come into operation until the 1st October, 1865, and is not noticed in these returns.

It appears, however, from a return printed by order of the House of Commons, that this most valuable jurisdiction was resorted to in 814 cases during the year 1866; and if this extended power is exercised with the skill and energy which have marked the common law proceedings of these courts, there can be no doubt that a large amount of the equity business of the country will be brought under the cognizance of the county courts.

The jurisdiction of the county courts in matters of bankruptcy have been largely called into operation—no less than 3,560 of the adjudications after mentioned having been made in these courts.

C.—*Local Courts of Ancient Jurisdiction.*

We learn from this return that no less than thirty-three local civil courts of ancient jurisdiction still exist. The business of these, however, except such as are situated in the thriving seats of commerce, appears almost extinct, the *Bradford Manor Court*, the *Bristol Tolgey Court*, the *Liverpool Court of Passage*, the *Newcastle Barge Court*, the *Salford Court of Record*, and the *Sheriff's Court of London*, being the principal which retain any important amount of business; in nine of these thirty-three local courts no proceedings took place, and in seven of the same courts there were no proceedings in 1865.

The *Lord Mayor's Court of London* is an exception to the general apathy into which local courts appear to have fallen. Owing to its peculiar power and jurisdiction in relation to citizens, the business of this court appears on the increase, the number of actions entered in

1865 being 5,006, an increase of 283, or about 6 per cent. upon the number in 1864, following a considerable increase in the preceding years. Moreover this court, by virtue of the process known as a Foreign Attachment, steps out of the boundaries of the city, and assumes a jurisdiction of an important nature over the rights of strangers as well as citizens.

By an ancient, and probably useful, custom of the city (in favour of trade), a creditor is entitled, before obtaining judgment, to attach the monies or goods of his debtor in the hands of a third party, who is called a Garnishee, by virtue of a summary proceeding in the Lord Mayor's Court, known as the proceeding by Foreign Attachment; and this proceeding has, of late, been rather extensively adopted, there having been no less than 945 cases of Foreign Attachment in the year 1865, an increase of 61, or nearly 7 per cent. on the number in the preceding year, and following an increase of 184, or 26·3 per cent., in 1864, upon the number for 1863; and the amount for which these Foreign Attachments was issued in the year 1865 having been 1,257,427*l.*, being an increase of 515,722*l.*, or 69·5 per cent. upon the amount in 1864.*

The *Stannaries Courts*, having jurisdiction in the counties of Devon and Cornwall, are local courts, with more enlarged area; and their proceedings, being chiefly in relation to mining cases, are, though in themselves important, of inferior general interest.

D.—*In the Court of Bankruptcy.*

The proceedings in the Court of Bankruptcy possess paramount general interest, as a direct index of the prosperous or adverse circumstances of the community; but they also possess a peculiar interest which attaches to a tribunal constituted, not for the determination of rights between litigating parties (though these are dealt with when they accidentally arise), but primarily and almost exclusively for the collection of the assets of bankrupts, and division of them among their creditors; and it is an interesting and important question, how far these objects are attained.

The number of adjudications for the year 1865 were—

On petition of a creditor.....	769
„ the debtor	5,937
By registrars at the prisons.....	1,091
On petitions in formâ pauperis	500
„ judgment debtor summons	8
	<hr/>
	8,305
	<hr/>

* By a recent decision of the House of Lords, it has been determined (in accordance with reason and justice) that the jurisdiction of this court is limited to cases in which the debt has been contracted within the city, and the fund in the hands of the Garnishee is within the city.

The total number shows an increase of 981, or 13·3 per cent., as compared with the total for 1864, but is less by 165 than the number in 1863: the increase in 1865 above the number in the preceding year extends to each form of procedure, except judgment debtor summonses. In the number of adjudications on petition of a creditor, it amounts to 174, or 29·2 per cent.; on petition of the debtor, to 677, or 12·8 per cent.; in the number by registrars at the prisons, to 187, or 20·6 per cent.; in the number on petitions in formâ pauperis, to 44, or 9·6 per cent. In 1864, there were nine adjudications on judgment debtor summonses. It extends also to each of the courts, amounting for the London Court to 742, or 32·1 per cent.; for the County District Courts, to 155, or 10 per cent.; and for the County Courts, to 184, or 5·4 per cent.

One cannot but be struck at the large proportion, 5,975, or nearly two-thirds of the whole of those adjudications being at the instance of the debtors themselves, a circumstance tending strongly to the conclusion, which appears to be borne out by the other returns in relation to the subject, that far too easy an opportunity of escape from obligations is afforded by fraudulent and collusive resort to the court of bankruptcy.

The number of adjudications in 1865 in which—

The debts of the bankrupt exceeded 300 <i>l.</i> , was	3,733
Where they did not exceed 300 <i>l.</i>	4,572

the former being 44·9 per cent., the latter 55·1 per cent. of the whole.

The total amount of the debts due from the estates of the bankrupts does not appear in the return. This would have been an item of interest for comparison with the following table of the total amount of the *gross* produce realized from the estates of bankrupts in the year 1865:—

	£
Amount realized by creditors' assignees	524,487
„ official „	332,468
Total	<u>856,955</u>

And with the number of cases in which a dividend was made, and in which there was no dividend, which are as follows:—

Number of cases in which a dividend was made.....	1,639
In which there was no dividend	5,727

The cases in which there was no dividend being 72 per cent., or nearly two-thirds of the whole. And with the following table, showing the rates in the pound at which dividends were made, and

of the proportion per cent. of the number at each rate to the whole:—

		Rate per Cent. to the whole.
Number of cases in which the dividend was under } 2s. 6d. in the pound	861	52·5
2s. 6d. and under 5s.	381	23·3
5s. " 7s. 6d.	200	12·2
7s. 6d. " 10s.	85	5·2
10s. " 15s.	62	3·8
15s. " 20s.	15	0·9
20s.	35	2·1

showing that in 1,442 cases, or nearly nine-tenths of the whole, the dividends were under 7s. 6d. in the pound.

The number of discharges granted, suspended, or refused, are as under:—

Granted	6,076
Suspended	403
Refused	107

The totals are, respectively, to the number of adjudications made during the year, in the proportions of 73·2, 4·8, and 1·3 per cent., 20·7 per cent. of the number of adjudications remaining. In the preceding year the discharges granted, suspended, and refused, were respectively in the proportions of 73·8, 4·3, and 0·1 per cent. to the total number of adjudications; in 1862, 62·6, 5·41, and 1·6—a further instance of the facility of escape from liability afforded by the Court of Bankruptcy.

Is it surprising that dissatisfaction exists in the mercantile community at such results as these? It may well be expected that, under such circumstances, resort should be had, at the instance of creditors as well as debtors, to other modes of winding up insolvent estates; and accordingly we find that, in the year 1865, the total number of trust deeds registered under the provisions of the Bankruptcy Act, 1861, was 5,204, being an increase of 1,600, or 44 per cent., on the number of the preceding year. Of these, 2,733 were deeds of assignment, 2,344 deeds of composition, and 127 deeds of inspectorship. The gross value of the estates and effects affected by these deeds was 9,035,700*l.*, showing an increase of 5,233,700*l.*, or 137 per cent. on the preceding year.

E.—*In the Court of Chancery.*

The proceedings in the Court of Chancery for the years 1865-64 appear from these returns to have been as follows:—

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1859-63.
<i>Suits Instituted—</i>			
Bills or informations filed.....	2,503	2,280	2,198
Claims filed under general order of 1850	—	—	21
Special cases filed under Act 14 Vict., cap. 35	25	20	26
Administration summonses filed	462	397	416
Other originating summonses filed	326	269	307
	3,316	2,966	2,968

A considerable amount of the business of the Court of Chancery consists in the hearing of petitions, not only in matters incidental to causes, but in matters which the court is empowered to entertain as original matters without any suit previously instituted, either by special Parliamentary authority, as under the Railway Acts, Trustee Acts, Settled Estate Acts, &c., or under its inherent powers, as in cases of Lunacy, the conduct of its own officers, &c.

The following are the numbers of attendable petitions under the different descriptions of proceedings in 1865 and 1864, with the average of the five years:—

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1859-63.
In causes.....	886	898	1,068
Under Acts relating to railways and other } public works	832	930	481
„ Trustee Acts of 1850 and 1852	267	296	312
„ „ Relief Acts of 1847 and 1849	341	334	327
„ the leases and sales of Settled Estates Act	102	77	76
„ the Acts relating to charities	16	6	44
„ the Winding-up and Joint Stock Com- } panies Act	137	75	30
„ the Infants' Settlement Act, 1855	16	33	16
In other general matters	343	327	259
	2,940	2,976	2,613

The proceedings arising out of the petitions under the Winding-up Acts during the year 1865 are sufficiently interesting to induce a detailed notice, they were as follows:—

	1865.
Contributories included in the list of contributories	1,486
„ excluded „	214
Debts claimed and adjudicated upon.....	3,462
Orders made	474
	£
The amount of calls made	2,394,614
Dividends ordered to be paid to creditors.....	912,227
Amount ordered to be refunded to contributories	30,646
Realised by sales	95,612
The receipts for the year were, on calls or by way of compromise	495,296
Assets realised	1,123,996
The disbursements, including salaries or allowances, clerks travelling expenses, &c., law expenses, auctioneer's and accountant's charges and sundries, were.....	79,288
Dividends paid to creditors	1,354,077
Amount refunded to contributories	70,355
Other payments	8,529
A balance remained available for future distribution, amounting to	263,142

and these will doubtless be far exceeded both in number and in the amount involved by the disastrous events of 1866-67.

In matters of lunacy, which come under the jurisdiction of the Lord Chancellor and the Lords Justices—not as judges of the Court of Chancery, but by direct authority from the Crown—the proceedings for the year 1865 were:—

	1865.	1864.	Average for 1860-63.
Petitions presented for hearing	138	166	161
Orders made for inquiries, in lieu of Commissioners of Lunacy	84	88	65
Other orders, including fiats confirming Master's report	322	347	286
Number of orders made in pursuance of the Lunacy Regulation Act, 1862, for the application of properties of small amount for the maintenance of lunatics	21	23	—
	£	£	£
Amount of cash directed to be paid into court	58,326	37,169	42,909
„ „ out	28,524	27,359	31,017
Amount of stock directed to be transferred into court	136,040	125,077	125,023
Amount of stock directed to be sold and transferred out	456,354	288,970	244,316
Amount of stock directed by orders in lunacy to be transferred otherwise than in court	182,559	102,965	55,908

And under commissions of lunacy the proceedings were as follows :—

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1859-63.
Orders of inquiry in commissions in lunacy, } executed by Masters in Lunacy	80	87	63
Reports made to the Lord Chancellor.....	185	246	166
Amount of receipts in the accounts and affidavits } of committees and receivers in lunacy passed during the year	£ 482,956	£ 470,443	£ 364,535
Amount of disbursements and allowances } therein	402,513	385,612	314,137

The reports made to the Lord Chancellor by the Masters in Lunacy comprise, amongst other matters, reports as to the property, kindred, and maintenance of the lunatics and their families, and the appointment of committees of their persons and estates; reports approving new committees of person or estate; reports fixing anew, or in any way varying the maintenance or residence of the lunatics; reports as to granting leases, and providing for the repair of the lunatics' estates, and on miscellaneous matters.

The Accountant-General of the Court of Chancery is the custodian not only of the monies of the ordinary suitors in the court, but of lunatics; also of the large sums deposited in compliance with the Standing Orders of the Houses of Parliament on private bills, and by railway and other companies for the execution of public works, by way of security and otherwise; and some idea of the magnitude and importance of the transactions in his department may be formed from the fact that during the year ended the 1st October, 1865, the amounts of cash securities and other effects paid and transferred into court and out of court were :

	£
Cash and securities paid into court	18,559,386
„ out of court	17,864,414

The number of cheques signed was 45,544; the number of powers of attorney issued, 3,309; and the number of accounts, 26,721.

The balances of stocks, securities, and cash in the name of the Accountant-General, and of the amount of cash remaining invested on account of the suitors' fund, and of the stock thereon, on the 1st October, 1865, were :—

1865.

1. Number of accounts	26,721
	£
2. Balance of stocks and securities on the } various accounts	57,215,889
3. Balance of cash on the various accounts	3,603,195
4. „ cash in the Bank	1,038,451
5. Total amount of cash remaining invested on } account of suitors' fund	2,564,744
6. Total amount of stock purchased with } suitors' cash	2,909,789

F.—*County Palatine of Lancaster.*

The Chancery Court of the county palatine of Lancaster forms a considerable addition to the court itself, the proceedings in that court being—

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1859-63.
<i>The Number of Suits and Matters Originated—</i>			
By bill.....	79	108	78
„ claim	15	20	19
„ summons	25	25	23
„ special case, petition, &c.	35	48	40
	154	201	160

G.—*Court of Admiralty.*

The number of causes in the Court of Admiralty, and the nature of them, as shown in the returns, are as follows:—

Nature of the Suits.

	1865.			1864.		
	Causes Pending at commencement of Year.	Causes Instituted.	Amount at which Causes were Entered.	Causes Pending at commencement of Year.	Causes Instituted.	Amount at which Causes were Pending.
			£			£
Salvage	28	81	166,050	26	77	175,975
Damage by collision	79	210	430,050	64	219	340,030
Bottomry	11	24	67,300	10	24	26,150
Actions for necessities sup- } plied to foreign ships..... }	5	48	24,900	6	51	23,030
Towage	2	18	2,910	1	14	2,020
Wages	15	45	19,000	13	65	29,890
Pilotage	1	2	200	—	3	450
Possessions	1	5	64,100	1	1	—
Other causes	27	68	134,250	23	40	757,950
	169	561	908,760	144	494	1,355,495
	670			638		

In these the judgments given were :—

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1859-63.
<i>Final Judgments in Contested Causes—</i>			
For plaintiff	108	99	109
„ defendant	22	30	34
Decrees in causes by default	28	16	46
Incidental decrees in contested causes			
Decrees in “in pœnam” causes			
	158	145	189

From the return furnished from the office of the Marshal of the Court of Admiralty, it appears that the number of arrests made, viz., of ships, of ships and cargoes, of ships and freights; of ships, cargoes, and freights; of cargoes only; of ships, nets, stores, &c.; of ships' ammunition, equipments, &c.; of proceeds in registry was 296 in 1865, against 268 in 1864.

H.—*Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Court.*

The proceedings in this court, which was instituted in the year 1857, may probably be considered as having now arrived at something like their average numbers, and are shown by the return to be as follows :—

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1859-63.
<i>Petitions Filed—</i>			
In formâ pauperis	5	1	4
For nullity of marriage	5	15	5
„ dissolution of marriage	222	231	213
„ judicial separation	62	66	56
„ restitution of conjugal rights	11	17	11
„ jactitation of marriage	—	—	—
„ declaratory act	3	2	2
	308	332	291
Application for protection of property	18	8	17

Before the establishment of this court marriages were indissoluble except by Act of Parliament; and the proceedings since its creation, have not only falsified the sinister predictions of opponents, but have shown how much domestic unhappiness has been purged and immorality prevented by means of its simple and salutary proceedings.

I.—*Court of Probate.*

The Court of Probate, established in the same year, 1857, exercises an exclusive jurisdiction in all matters relating to the

grant or revocation of probate of wills and letters of administration—a jurisdiction formerly exercised by numerous ecclesiastical courts, having no uniform mode of procedure, and being entirely independent of each other, sometimes causing conflicts as to their jurisdiction, and often making it a question of some anxiety whether a will had been proved or administration granted in the proper court.

By the statute 20 and 21 Vict., cap. 77, one court of probate was established for England, with district registrars, combining all the advantages of centralization with so much diffusion as is required to meet the wants of the community.

The probates registered and administrations granted out of the principal registry were :—

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1858-63.
Total number of probates granted	9,396	9,445	8,291
Administrations	4,678	4,807	4,393

And the value of the property under which probates and administrations passed in the principal registry of the Court of Probate, in the year 1865, was sworn under 57,588,696*l*.

The number of the probates and administrations granted in the district registries was :—

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1858-63.
<i>Number Granted in Common Form—</i>			
Probates	15,109	14,882	13,576
Letters of administration	5,717	5,276	5,029
With will annexed.....	789	930	746
<i>Number Granted under Direction of Judge—</i>			
Probate	15	17	13
Letters of administration.....	5	6	5
With will annexed.....	3	2	2

No information is afforded by the return as to the value of the property under which probates and administrations in the district registries are sworn.

K.—*The Ecclesiastical Courts.*

Since the institution of the Courts of Probate and Divorce, the business of the Ecclesiastical Courts has much diminished, and the total number of suits in these courts in 1865 (exclusive of faculties) was twenty-three, of which thirteen were in the Arches Court of

Canterbury, three in the Arches Court of York, three in the Diocesan Court of Bath and Wells, two at Rochester, and two at Worcester.

The nature of the proceedings was as follows :—

In matters of church rates	13
Pew rights	2
Making alterations in a church or churchyard without a } faculty	1
Against granting a faculty.....	1
„ collation to a canonry	1
„ institution to benefice	1
Decreeing a monition.....	1
Deprivation of benefice	2
To answer articles, &c.	1

In addition to the foregoing, in 1865 there were 109 suits for faculties, viz. :—

For altering, &c., churches	93
„ pew seats	1
„ erecting a school in a churchyard	4
„ tablets	4
„ removal of bodies	2
„ other objects	5

L.—Judicial Committee of Privy Council.

The proceedings before the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council consist of appeals from the Admiralty and Ecclesiastical Courts, The Channel Islands, The Isle of Man, The Colonies, and India, and of cases relating to Patents.

The proceedings before this exalted tribunal were :—

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1859-63.
Number of appeals entered	89	75	63
Dismissed for non prosecution	9	8	10
Heard and determined	32	40	41
Judgments affirmed	16	31	23
„ varied	1	1	3
„ reversed	15	13	16
Appeals lodged since 1st January, 1860, which } remained for hearing..... }	157	114	94

Five applications were lodged during the year for the extension or conferring of patents ; one was withdrawn, one dismissed, one granted.

M.—House of Lords.

The House of Lords is the ultimate tribunal of appeal from the Courts of Common Law and Chancery, the Courts of Probate and Divorce, and the Scotch and Irish Courts; and the following table shows the number of appeals lodged from each of these courts:—

	1865.	1864.	Average, 1859-63.
<i>From the Court of Chancery—</i>			
England	20	11	19
Ireland	1	4	7
<i>From the Court of Exchequer—</i>			
England	1	3	—
Ireland	1	—	—
<i>From the Court of Exchequer Chamber—</i>			
England	12	11	8
Ireland	—	—	2
<i>From the Court of Session—</i>			
Scotland	25	33	27
<i>From the Court of Probate—</i>			
England	—	1	2
Ireland	—	—	—
<i>From the Court of Divorce—</i>			
England	2	1	2
Total.....	62	64	67

Thirty-seven judgments were delivered in 1865, including causes heard in the previous session, and standing over for judgment, against twenty-seven in the previous year; twenty-four of the causes in 1865 were simply affirmed, one was affirmed with variation, four were reversed, three in part reversed and in part affirmed, one in part reversed, with direction, and four reversed with direction, declaration, or remit.

V.—Expense of the Civil Tribunals.

The expenditure for the maintenance of these various tribunals, with their respective judges and officers, is stated in an elaborate return recently printed by order of the House of Commons; from which it appears that the national expenditure in respect of the various civil tribunals, the proceedings of which form the subject of the present paper, was in the year 1866 as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
For the Court of Chancery	178,857	4	6
„ Judicial Committee of Privy Council.....	1,870	—	—
„ superior courts of common law	201,083	18	5
„ County Courts	491,935	18	11
„ Court of Probate and Matrimonial Causes	90,420	7	11
„ „ Admiralty	15,162	9	8
„ „ Bankruptcy	120,286	12	2
„ Palatine Court of Lancaster	8,169	1	1
Total	1,107,785	12	8

This does not include any expenses of the criminal courts, nor the legal expenses of the public departments, which, as well as the expenses of the Scotch and Irish Courts, are given in the Parliamentary return, from which it appears that the total cost to the public of all the judicial and legal establishments of the United Kingdom was, in the year 1866 2,344,540*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.*

Of the amount of the costs incurred by the suitors in these various tribunals above mentioned, the returns give but little information, and do not enable us to form any estimate, no statement of the amounts of the taxed costs of proceedings in the superior courts of law being given.

The amount of the costs of procedure in the County Courts is stated at 37,717*l.*

The taxed costs in the Courts of Bankruptcy at 93,519*l.*

The taxed costs in the Court of Chancery at 710,657*l.*

The taxed costs in the Court of Admiralty at 16,764*l.* 10*s.*

Total 858,657*l.* 10*s.*

But these amounts cannot be considered as giving any proximate idea of the amount expended by the suitors in the civil tribunals of the country.

VI.—*Concluding Observations.*

These returns show that, with a population of 20,990,946 in 1865, 119,097 actions were commenced in the superior courts of common law, 782,849 plaints issued in the County Courts, and 3,316 suits instituted in the Court of Chancery—a rather heavy amount of litigation. One redeeming feature of this, however, where the results are stated, as in the superior courts of law and the county courts, is the large proportion of cases in which success was with the plaintiff, showing that proceedings were not needlessly or vexatiously instituted. The results of the proceedings in Chancery do not appear. In Bankruptcy, though the numbers of cases are, happily, few compared with the population, they increase in a greater ratio than the population, and the results as to dividends

are so unsatisfactory, that it is in all cases a question with the creditor whether it is expedient to wind up an estate in bankruptcy or not; and when the bankrupt is indifferent to the disgrace of bankruptcy, he frequently, as has been seen, takes the matter into his own hands, and relieves himself from liability by his own petition. It is to be hoped that the elaborate measure now pending in Parliament may produce some amendment in this branch of the law.*

One curious fact appearing from these returns is the greater proportional number of causes heard before the Judges of the Court of Chancery than before the Judges of the Courts of Common Law, the number of causes heard before the Master of the Rolls and the three Vice-Chancellors (the four judges in original cases) having been 4,659 in 1865, the number of causes heard before the fifteen judges of the common law courts during the same year having been 2,563.

The reason for this will, no doubt, be found in the different modes of procedure in these different courts, but the delays of Chancery certainly do not rest with the judges of that Court.

The return as to the County Courts may be regarded as in all respects satisfactory, except as to the fees. The plaintiffs appear, in the great majority of cases, to act as warnings, and where these fail, the large proportion of cases above noticed is determined in favour of the plaintiff. The fees certainly appear out of proportion to the results, and it is an interesting question, probably quite worth a trial, whether these might not be beneficially and wisely reduced by fixing them only so as to discourage vexatious litigation.

The proceedings in the Admiralty Court appear comparatively few, looking at the quantity of shipping frequenting our ports, the hazardous nature of the occupation, and the risks run to obtain cargoes, 44,510 vessels being reported as having entered, and 48,181 as having cleared outwards in 1865, while 501 causes only were instituted in the Admiralty Courts, and 206 seizures made by the Admiralty Marshal during the same period.

The proceedings in the Court of Divorce and Matrimonial Causes should occasion no uneasiness, when we see that there were 185,474 marriages in England in 1865, and 308 applications only of all kinds, including those for declarations as to legitimacy to the Court.

The returns do not enable a comparison with the number of suits

* Since this paper was read, the Government bill for consolidating and amending the law relating to bankruptcy has been withdrawn, without any regret on the part of the mercantile community. This is not the place for suggesting alterations or improvements, but it does not appear impossible, perhaps not very difficult, to frame a measure which would answer the end in view, and avoid the scandal of offering a premium to fraud, and the injustice of frittering away bankrupts' estates in expenses, and of wearing out creditors by delay.

for divorce a “*mensâ et thoro*” (analagous to the present suit for judicial separation) which were in former times instituted in the Ecclesiastical Courts, and which now appear to a great extent superseded by the more rational proceeding for a dissolution of the marriage; but it is impossible to look into these returns without a feeling of satisfaction that those most injurious and demoralizing acts and feelings which too often clouded and embittered married life, and were without remedy in times gone by, can now be redressed by the salutary action of this Court.

Our numerous courts procure a division of labour, no inconsiderable advantage where there is really enough to do as leading to excellence in each department.

The few appeals attest the industry and ability of the judges.

Litigation can never in itself be a subject of satisfaction, but the retrospect of the statistics of our civil procedure justifies us in saying that, though a law-loving and law-obeying, we are by no means an unfairly litigious people—and in feeling that the machinery of our civil procedure is, in the main, in a satisfactory state, though capable in some respects of improvement.

MISCELLANEA.

CONTENTS:

	PAGE		PAGE
I.—Dr. John Watts' "Catechism of Wages and Capital"	454	II.—Movement of the Population in France during 1864	457
		III.—Foreign Trade Unions	459

I.—Dr. John Watts' "*Catechism of Wages and Capital.*"

THIS article appeared in the *Economist* of the 10th August, under the title of "The Necessity of a Popular Teaching of Political Economy."

"The time cannot be far off when in the course of the apparently endless polemics on popular education, State grants, and conscience clauses, we shall hear a little about teaching political economy in a popular form. Nine-tenths of the boys and girls constantly under training in this country must get their livings by some sort of buying or selling. In the great majority of cases, they are sellers of their own labour for wages; and surely if there be one topic more than another upon which they should be taught something, it is the subject of wages, and the circumstances which render wages possible at all. It is nonsense to say that topics of this kind are unintelligible to boys and girls of the ordinary school age. Taught by a competent instructor, by the process of oral question and answer, it is notorious that few parts of the school course are so well liked as the lessons in political economy. There are two gentlemen in London, whose names are widely and honourably known, who can most amply confirm this statement—we allude to Mr. William Ellis and to Mr. Shields. Mr. Ellis has devoted the leisure of a busy and engrossed life, and an amount of money which shames ordinary notions of liberality, to the practical promotion of the teaching in common day-schools for the children of the poorer classes of the outlines of social economy: and in Mr. Shields, he has had the good fortune to meet with a colleague whose power and felicity of winning the attention and confidence of his large juvenile congregations amounts almost to a marvel. The late Dean of Hereford, Dr. Dawes, was another unceasing labourer on the same field.

"It is in a great measure foolish to expect the abuses of trades' unions to disappear until the working men themselves are able to satisfy their own understandings by arguments and facts, *not thrust upon them from above*, but spontaneously germinated by principles previously implanted, that certain practices *are* abuses, and ought, in the interest of the working men themselves, to be put down and made an end of. The only effectual way of accomplishing this is to

teach thoroughly a few elementary chapters of political economy in the ordinary schools of the country. The first object and duty of these schools is to enable the boys and girls who attend them to get honest and useful livings—and in order to do this, it surely requires no argument to show that among the first steps to be taken should be suitable efforts to give to these young inexperienced natures some sound insight into the operation of causes which will most intimately affect every circumstance of their lives—in the vast preponderance of instances down to the mere sustenance of life from day to day.

"Probably the best method of bringing about this urgent reform would be for a committee of some dozen or score persons, belonging to all parties and religions, to undertake the task of urging it upon the Education Department and the House of Commons; and if Mr. Ellis could feel himself at liberty to favour such a plan, it is quite certain that he could get as many supporters as he liked to enlist.

"In the meantime, however, another diligent labourer in the same field has not been idle. Dr. John Watts, of Manchester, has just issued a compact penny tract (Simpkin and Co.), called a *Catechism of Wages and Capital*, eminently adapted for popular purposes. No man has a better right to be heard by the working men than Dr. Watts. He is one of themselves, and has most honourably won for himself a name and influence of no small authority throughout the country. We say this, not forgetting that on several subjects Dr. Watts holds opinions which seem to us to require large limitations and corrections. But Dr. Watts has always adopted the plan of stating precisely what he means, and honestly taking the consequences.

"The *Catechism* is short, and deals entirely with the relations of wages and capital. For example:—

"'11. Is there any natural law or rule to regulate the amount of wages to be paid to workmen?—There can be no absolute rule where the human will is an element, but there are two rules which tend to regulate the wages paid in different employments; first, that which gives for work requiring great knowledge and skill, large wages as compared with occupations where less skill is required; and second, that which treats all labour as a commodity for sale, and which lowers its price when plentiful, and raises it when scarce, in proportion to the wants of a locality.

"'12. Can you give an illustration of the first of these rules?—Yes; the profession of a civil engineer requires great knowledge and skill, and it is not unusual for one of this class to earn as much in a single day as an agricultural labourer gets for a whole year's work.

"'13. Do you think it right for such a great difference of emolument to exist amongst men?—Right or wrong, so long as we need the services of the civil engineer, the only mode of lowering his price is by increasing the number of talented men in the profession; and it must not be forgotten that the preparation for such a profession involves a great outlay for education, and that it is occasionally possible for such a man in a day to overcome difficul-

ties, in the way of production, which the whole lifetime of an ordinary labourer could not accomplish. It would be impossible, for instance, to estimate in money the value of the steam-engine, or the self-acting mule, in the production of wealth, and yet they cost but a small portion of the life of the inventor of each.

“ ‘Will you give an example of the second rule?—Any of the large staple trades, such as the cotton, iron, or coal trades, constantly exemplify the second rule; for in all of them the rates of wages are adjusted from time to time according to the demand for their various productions, and the plenty or scarcity of operatives needing employment.’

“ The following extracts relate to changes suggested in the character of trades’ unions:—

“ ‘37. Do you think, then, that trades’ societies ought to be discontinued?—No; but I think they ought to be, and might be, so reformed as to make them acceptable to masters, and more useful than at present to workmen.

“ ‘38. Will you explain the alterations necessary to bring about these results?—Yes; first, the abolition of strikes and of all rules which they render necessary; second, the abolition of all restrictions affecting the number of apprentices to be kept by any employer; third, the abolition of all rules which exclude from any trade workmen who have not served an apprenticeship; fourth, the establishment of sickness and burial funds where they do not already exist; fifth, the federation of all the societies in the same trade; and sixth, the establishment or improvement of trade correspondencies throughout each trade.

“ ‘39. Why do you propose to do away with the restriction as to apprentices?—First, because it is a tyranny to limit any man’s choice of a trade for his son; second, because it is a fruitful source of ill-will with employers; and third, because it cannot be maintained in its integrity, but simply results in the establishment of non-society shops; and the same principle holds with regard to the exclusion of workmen who have not been apprenticed.

“ ‘40. But ought not men, who have served seven years to learn a trade, to have some protection against those who have not so served?—No; it is as much a tyranny to prevent a man from changing his trade, as it is to keep a youth from learning one. If apprenticeship is a sacrifice, it ought to be abolished; but if it is a necessity, then the competent interlopers will be so few as not to be worth excluding; and a man who has genius enough to pick up such a trade without teaching, is likely to prove a very useful workman.’

“ Short, terse, pithy sentences like these, are the precise kind of teaching wanted in the large towns; but nowhere so much wanted, or so certain to produce lasting effects, as in the ordinary day-schools of the country. Some of the higher schools also should adopt Dr. Watts’ *Catechism* at once.”

II.—*Movement of the Population in France during 1864.*

FROM the *L'Opinion Nationale*:—

“ Under this title the *Moniteur Universel*, of the 16th April, published a report made to the Emperor by the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce. This report, after stating that a similar work is published every five years (a fact well known to those interested in such matters), suggests that it would be as well to issue them annually, in order to render them more public, and to rectify many errors about the movement of the population. For our own part, we are bound to say that we have found no error to correct in the articles we have recently published on the same subject; and we ought to state moreover, that the statistical abstract, published every year by M. de Forcade, was not so important as he supposes. In the first place, this abstract rests on a doubtful point relative to the number of the people; as the census is only taken every five years, we are obliged to calculate the number of the people on the enumeration of the preceding year, increased or diminished by the difference between the births and the deaths, which is not at all precise. In computing it is desirable to use only authentic numbers.

“ In the second place, this annual census can have but an indifferent value, for it may be, and is, modified by a host of circumstances more or less active; an epidemic, a war, scarcity, &c. Doubtless in making a quinquennial census, we have not a perfectly exact expression of the facts, but we are at least enabled to establish a certain average which approaches the truth.

“ That stated, and not to enter again upon a subject which we have already dealt with at length, let us briefly analyse the document published by the *Moniteur*. It is certainly not without interest, but it teaches us nothing new.

“ *Births*.—In 1864 the births exceeded the deaths by 145,550—81,494 males, 64,056 females. This deviates so much from the observed averages of the preceding years, that it can only be regarded as an anomaly. In fact, from 1817 to 1860, the mean ratio of male to female births was as 17 to 16, whilst for 1864 it is more than 20 to 16. Moreover, we cannot understand the proportion given a little farther on as 105 to 100. There is evidently a mistake here. The report states that notwithstanding the increase of the population, the number of the births in France is nearly stationary, and this, we repeat, is a fact of very great moment. The report also announces, as we have already done, ‘that the growth of the population can only be attributed to the longevity of the inhabitants,’ which has increased between 1800 and 1860 from thirty to thirty-eight years; and this is unhappily too true, as the following calculation will show. If life is prolonged by eight years in a term of sixty-six years for a population of at least 30,000,000 souls; the fact is beyond all dispute, that this simple prolongation of existence has given every ten years an increase of 1,200,000 persons; and this in effect is the result furnished by the census from 1856 to 1866, consequently the increase in the population between 1800 and 1866 is exclusively represented by the increase in the mean duration of life. We are forced to conclude then from this, that the births do not at all help to swell the population; whence it also unhappily results that when the duration of life shall have reached its maximum, and this will shortly be the case, the population of France will remain altogether stationary for some years, then diminish very quickly, if the number of births on the other hand does not increase in equal ratio.

“ There were born in 1864 75,900 illegitimate children, of whom 15,984 were in the department of the Seine, 29,669 in the towns, and 30,247 in the country districts. Although we know how frequent illegitimate births are in the great centres of population, we must not charge Paris with the 16,000 births recorded there. No one is ignorant of the fact that a great number of girls come from the country solely to be confined and to conceal their fault. We may possibly be surprised at the small number of illegitimate children legally recognised by either one or the other of the parents. For the year 1864, the number of children

deprived of all affiliation rose to 50,183; but in the same year, 16,505 children were legitimatised by 13,399 marriages; and it is very remarkable that Paris furnishes proportionally the greatest number of these marriages of reparation—to use M. de Forcade's happy expression. The question of still-born children, specially important from a statistical point of view, would not detain us if there were not in it a very interesting point to elucidate,—at what period of gestation ought we to declare the birth of a still-born child? Must we wait for the natural term of nine months? Is it enough if the child has breathed? Is it necessary to declare at what period of gestation it has arrived? This last plan appears to us the wisest to act on, and may, in certain cases, prevent much trouble and annoyance. However this may be, the official report says:—‘It does not appear that any instruction by the superior authority prescribes to the civil officer of the State how to distinguish the *fœtus* from the *still-born child* properly so called. At Paris a certain number of still-births are registered whose gestation has only been two or three months, whilst in other places they enter, without any previous declaration, the *fœtus* even up to the sixth month.’

“*Marriages.*—The number of marriages registered in 1864 rose to 299,579. For the last four years there was a tendency to diminish, but for the previous sixty years there had been a constant tendency to increase. In compensation, the duration of marriages has increased, and has risen from 23 years and 2 months in 1831, to 24½ years in 1861. This is the rigorous consequence of the increase of the average duration of life.

“As to the fecundity of marriages, it continuously diminishes; this also we have fully stated, and the numbers given in the report are the same as those we have indicated in our previous articles. It would be curious to know the proportional ages of married persons; the age at which marriages are most frequent; but these calculations would carry us too far, it will suffice to recapitulate them in the following propositions. ‘In general the average age of the wife is less than that of the husband. There is only one exception to it, it is that of widows marrying bachelors. The married men residing in the country are younger than those in the towns. In 1864 the bachelors averaged 30 years in the department of the Seine; 28 years 10 months in the towns; 28 years 2 months in the country. The spinsters 25 years 9 months; 25 years 1 month; and 24 years 6 months. The widowers 44 years, 43½ years, and 42 years 7 months. The widows 46 years 6 months; 39 years 5 months; and 38 years 2 months.’ Marriages of consanguinity rose to 5,000 for 1864. These marriages, which we regard as very mischievous from a child-bearing point of view, appear to have a tendency to augment. Under this head are included marriages contracted between aunts and nephews, uncles and nieces, brothers-in-law and sisters-in-law, and between cousins germane.

“*Elementary Instruction of the Married.*—It is a melancholy thing to observe, and one to which *l'Opinion Nationale* has already frequently drawn attention, that more than one-third of the people who marry in the present day do not know how to write their names. Nevertheless, let us say that this number tends continually to decrease; it was in 1855 39·92 per cent., in 1864 it was only 34·66 per cent.

“*Deaths.*—Of 37,914,432 inhabitants, France registered 860,330 deaths, that is to say, in the proportion of 2·27 per cent.; a number above that of the two preceding years. In relation to the sex, the lower mortality pertained to the females, 2·28 per cent. for the males, 2·23 per cent. for the females. Beyond 20 years of age, marriage is always more favourable to longevity than celibacy, at least for the male sex; for the other sex the married state is not better till the age of 30 is passed.

“We shall limit ourselves to this dry analysis. It would have been well undoubtedly, to follow it up with some reflections, but we have, to a certain extent, done so before, and we can only here repeat that which we have already said in our previous articles, which our readers will probably remember. We will content ourselves by saying that the report of M. de Forcade would, to our mind, have gained

much by presenting these moral and political considerations, which are almost, if not quite, wanting to it; and which would from his pen have an authority which no other editor could impart."

III.—*Foreign Trade Unions.*

FROM the *Economist*:—

"A blue book containing reports from ministers and consuls in most foreign countries on industrial questions and trade unions has been published at a most appropriate time, and contains much matter of interest. Amongst the contents of it, which are of lasting importance, we may allude to full accounts of the co-operative societies founded in France by Dollfus, and in Germany by Schulze-Delitzsch. But the sketches of the existing state of the laws that regulate trade unions on the continent, of the results of such laws, and of the attempts that have been made to modify them, are enough for our present purpose, and will occupy all the space at our disposal.

"Trade unions are unknown in Russia, Portugal, Denmark, Sweden, and Sicily. But how far this is attributable to legal interference, to the contentment of workmen, or to the imperfect development of trade itself, we have no exact means of deciding. Mr. Jerningham, who writes from Stockholm, says, that with regard to coalitions and strikes, 'those particular emblems of civilization have not yet appeared' in Sweden. In some other countries, the stringency of law has proved generally effectual in suppressing the same emblems. In Austria, for instance, strikes are immediately put a stop to by the police, and the ringleaders are liable under the penal code to imprisonment for a term varying from eight days to three months. In Germany and Prussia, the interference of the State with workmen's societies is direct and positive, and, as Mr. Morier writes, 'trade combinations for the purpose of influencing wages have hitherto been illegal.' By the Industrial Code of 1845, persons exercising a trade or manufacture who endeavour to combine with a view to force either their workmen or the authorities to make concessions, were liable to be imprisoned for twelve months; and journeymen or workmen who attempted to combine in the same way, were to receive the same punishment. Operatives, journeymen, or apprentices, forming associations without the permission of the police, were to be fined or imprisoned. Journeymen and operatives who abandoned their work without a lawful cause, or were guilty of gross disobedience or insubordination, were to be fined or imprisoned. Mr. Morier remarks, that these laws against combinations have proved successful in Germany, and that during a period of great industrial activity. But the current of public opinion has for the last ten years been setting strongly against these laws, and in one state after another they have been repealed. The agitation for their repeal has been most violent in Prussia, though it is only in the last session of the Prussian Chambers that the resistance of the conservatives was overcome. In 1865, Schulze-Delitzsch introduced a short bill to repeal the sections of the Industrial Code of 1845 which we have cited. But though the bill passed the Lower House by a large majority, it was thrown out in the Upper Chamber. The Government then brought in a bill which passed both houses, and by which the effect of those sections was considerably modified. Under the new law, agreements by employers or workmen to stop work in order to compel others to comply with their demands, are declared to be not legally binding on those who enter into them. And the use of 'bodily coercion, threats, injuries against honour, or putting in Coventry,' for the same object, is to be punished with imprisonment. These new sections seem to us to savour of the normal priggishness of Prussian legislation. What may be the effect of declaring that agreements to strike or lock out are not

legally binding we are unable to determine. But to make laws against sending people to Coventry, and to imprison men who cut their fellow workman, is to invoke the majesty of justice for what is hardly within her province.

"In France, the old state of the law was most severe against combinations of workmen. 'They were characterised,' says Mr. Fane, 'as misdemeanors, and the promoters of them could be punished by imprisonment of two to five years' duration. The combination of employers for the purpose of unjustly depressing the rate of wages was also punishable by law, but with far less severity.' This code was, however, changed by an imperial decree of 1864, and all combinations which are not accompanied by violence, menaces, or fraudulent procedure, are legalised. But even now, the right of combination in France is hampered by one serious restriction. 'Suppose,' says Mr. Fane, 'that the members of any trade in France desire, by combination among themselves, to raise the existing rate of their wages. The first step is to apply to the Prefect of the Police for permission to hold a meeting. Such a meeting, not being illegal, is, as a general rule, at once sanctioned; but the laws affecting public security necessitate the presence at every meeting of an agent of police to watch the proceedings on the part of the authorities. . . . The introduction of any political matter into the discussions would constitute a breach of the law, and would entail the immediate dissolution of the meeting by the police agent present. Suppose that at such a meeting any members of a trade make affirmations which are wilfully false; that they attribute, for instance, to the employers resolutions that have never been taken by them, or that they assert, knowing it to be false, that such demands as they advocate have been conceded to the workmen in a neighbouring town, and that they have succeeded by such false representations in initiating or prolonging a strike, they become liable to imprisonment of from six days to three years, and to a fine of from 16 to 3,000 frs.' Now, of course, as a police agent must be present at every meeting, and as it is not likely that he attends without previous knowledge of the facts which will be stated, and as, moreover, a great many of the facts on which workmen base their claims for an increase of wages are apt to bear a political aspect, the abstract legality of combinations becomes less important. We presume the police agent is the judge of what is political. There is a story of a Prussian policeman whose wife kept an apple stall, and who dissolved a meeting because some one commented on a rise in the price of apples. This only shows that under bureaucratic governments, the liberty of the subject is less regarded than the authority of the sovereign, and that all who are in office have some reflected rays of the monarch's lustre, some share of his infallibility. It is plain that if an agent of an absolute government has the control over a meeting of discontented workmen, too loud an expression of their discontent might prove fatal to their object. Yet there seems to be a still greater check upon the workmen in Italy than in Germany or France, for by the Italian Penal Code, all combinations for the purpose of impeding or suspending any work, or increasing its cost without reasonable cause, are to be punished with three months' imprisonment. What reasonable cause is there for increasing the cost of work or suspending its execution? And on whom lies the burden of proof that the cause is reasonable? Belgium has rather followed the example of France in repealing an old and stringent law, by which all coalitions were forbidden, and in doing away with the distinction between combinations of employers and combinations of workmen.

"Such being the laws of the various countries, let us cast a short glance at the result. Since the change of the law in France, strikes have been of constant occurrence, but many of them have been amicably arranged by the State authorities. It is much to the credit of the French authorities that an application on the part of either employers or employed for permission to hold a meeting, has often led to friendly mediation. In Prussia, the provisions of the Industrial Code were enforced twenty-nine times between 1845 and 1865, but in many other cases proceedings were commenced, and either failed or were abandoned. The strikes which were the cause of them seem to have seldom been of any magnitude; there were only five great strikes in the twenty years, and the longest time any of them lasted

was ten days. But in one of these cases, 1,000 factory hands struck work ; in another, nearly 900. The chief strikes in Italy have occurred in Piedmont, though there was one of 1,000 workmen in the iron foundries at Naples. This, however, was terminated in a month, and none of the Piedmontese strikes lasted any longer time. The carpenters and joiners of Turin struck for higher wages in 1860 and in 1863, but both times unsuccessfully ; the masons and bricklayers of Turin struck in 1861 ; and the woollen weavers of Biella struck for eighteen days in 1864, but accepted an arrangement. In Genoa, the porters of the free port struck to keep up their monopoly, and 'were allowed to carry their point through the weakness and want of decision of the municipality.' In Denmark, there was a strike of the carpenters and bricklayers of Copenhagen for an increase of 4*d.* a-day in their wages. The masters refused to grant the increase, and after the strike had lasted six weeks, the men, finding their private resources exhausted, returned gradually to their work. On this, the masters spontaneously conceded half the demand, and any rottenness that might have existed in the industrial state of Denmark was happily removed. It must, of course, be remembered that in all these countries perfect freedom of combination, if it exists at all, is quite of modern growth. What will be the result of relaxing the laws against strikes may not appear from any statement of the result of the former severity. But it is significant of an altered tone of public feeling that these relaxations should have occurred at a time when the abuse of strikes has been so much felt, and that it has been thought right to take steps towards liberty even when there was such a tendency to license."

MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

No. I.—ENGLAND AND WALES.

MARRIAGES IN THE QUARTER ENDED 31ST MARCH, 1867, AND BIRTHS AND DEATHS IN THE QUARTER ENDED 30TH JUNE, 1867.

The *Registers* of the UNITED KINGDOM show that the *births* of 270,087 children, and the *deaths* of 154,252 persons of both sexes, were registered in the three months ending on *June* 30th. The recorded natural increase was 115,835; the emigrants were 60,876.

The registered marriages of the United Kingdom in the quarter ending *March* 31st, 1867, were 54,530.

The death-rate of the United Kingdom differs little from that prevailing in England and Wales. The several facts concerning the other divisions of the kingdom are set forth in the reports of the Registrar-General of Scotland and the Registrar-General of Ireland.

The resident population of England, Scotland, and Ireland, in the middle of 1867, is estimated at 30,157,239. The corrected death-rate of the quarter is 2·098 per cent.; the birth-rate 3·725; the marriage-rate for the previous quarter 1·582.

ENGLAND:—MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, and DEATHS, *returned in the Years* 1861-67, and in the *QUARTERS of those Years.*

Calendar YEARS, 1861-67:—Numbers.

Years	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
Marriages No.	—	187,519	185,474	180,387	173,510	164,030	163,706
<i>Births</i> „	—	753,188	748,069	740,275	727,417	712,684	696,406
Deaths „	—	500,938	490,909	495,531	473,837	436,566	435,114

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1861-67.

(I.) MARRIAGES:—*Numbers.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March..... No.	36,380	37,576	36,807	37,988	35,528	33,953	33,274
June „	—	48,523	45,827	44,599	44,146	40,853	42,012
September „	—	46,196	45,852	44,675	41,932	40,600	39,884
December „	—	55,224	56,988	53,125	51,904	48,624	48,536

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1861-67.

(II.) BIRTHS:—Numbers.

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March..... No.	195,455	196,737	194,130	192,947	186,341	181,990	172,933
June „	199,649	192,459	192,988	188,835	189,340	185,554	184,820
September „	—	178,982	181,941	181,015	173,439	172,709	172,033
December „	—	185,010	179,010	177,478	178,297	172,431	166,620

(III.) DEATHS:—Numbers.

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March..... No.	134,254	138,233	140,410	142,977	128,096	122,019	121,215
June „	112,523	128,692	115,892	116,880	118,121	107,392	107,558
September „	—	116,826	113,362	112,223	112,504	92,381	101,232
December „	—	117,187	121,245	123,451	115,116	114,774	105,109

England.—This Return comprises the BIRTHS and DEATHS registered by 2,200 registrars in all the districts of England during the quarter that ended on June 30th, 1867; and the MARRIAGES in 12,959 churches or chapels, about 5,612 registered places of worship unconnected with the Established Church, and 641 Superintendent Registrars' offices, in the quarter that ended on March 31st, 1867.

The spring quarter has been in every respect genial. The births exceeded the average number of the season, and the low mortality presented a striking contrast to that prevailing in the previous spring. Sanitary work was accelerated last year by the impending epidemic of Asiatic cholera, and the fruits of the efforts then made are reaped now. The marriage-rate was below the average in the winter quarter, and reflected the prevailing depression of certain classes of industry.

MARRIAGES.—72,760 persons were married in the three months of January, February, and March; and thus the annual marriage-rate of the season, in which it is invariably lowest, was 1·382 per cent., the average of the three months being 1·400. The decline of marriages in Cornwall was remarkable, and the emigration from the mining districts of that county is spoken of as an exodus. Marriages in Durham and Northumberland in the northern division were depressed; but the marriages in the other divisions showed little variation from the average.

BIRTHS.—199,649 living children were registered in the months of April, May, and June. The increase of births is constant, and the excess in this quarter over the numbers of the previous spring quarter was 7,190. The birth-rate of the quarter was 3·742, which is the highest rate on record. The increase of births was greatest in London and in the north-western counties.

INCREASE OF POPULATION.—As the births were in number 199,649, the deaths 112,523, the natural increase of the people in the quarter was 87,126, or 957 daily.

Against this increase is to be put the loss by the emigration of 16,718 persons of English origin; 11,980 to the United States, 2,028 to British North America, 2,142 to the Australian colonies, and 568 to other places. The internal movements of the population of the United Kingdom are unrecorded. The spring emigration has been for the last five years stationary or declining.*

* Return with which the Registrar-General has been favoured by the Emigration Commissioners. Of 73,571 emigrants the origin was undistinguished in 1,594 cases which have been distributed by calculation. 12,695 of the emigrants were foreigners.

ENGLAND:—*Annual Rates per Cent. of PERSONS MARRIED, BIRTHS, and DEATHS, during the Years 1861-67, and the QUARTERS of those Years.*

Calendar YEARS, 1861-67:—General Percentage Results.

YEARS.....	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
Estmtd. Popln. of England in thousands in middle of each Year....	21,430	—	21,210	20,991	20,772	20,554	20,336	20,119
Persons Mar- ried Per ct. }	—	1·687	1·768	1·768	1·736	1·688	1·614	1·628
Births „	—	3·493	3·551	3·564	3·564	3·539	3·504	3·461
Deaths.... „	—	2·255	2·362	2·339	2·386	2·305	2·147	2·163

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1861-67.

(I.) PERSONS MARRIED :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March Per ct.	1·382	1·400	1·442	1·428	1·472	1·408	1·360	1·346
June..... „	—	1·718	1·838	1·754	1·724	1·726	1·614	1·678
Septmbr. „	—	1·631	1·726	1·732	1·704	1·616	1·582	1·570
Decembr. „	—	1·987	2·058	2·146	2·022	1·996	1·890	1·906

(II.) BIRTHS :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March Per ct.	3·713	3·663	3·776	3·765	3·740	3·691	3·644	3·500
June..... „	3·742	3·619	3·644	3·692	3·651	3·700	3·665	3·690
Septmbr. „	—	3·350	3·344	3·434	3·453	3·343	3·365	3·388
Decembr. „	—	3·340	3·447	3·370	3·376	3·428	3·350	3·272

(III.) DEATHS :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March Per ct.	2·551	2·551	2·653	2·723	2·772	2·538	2·443	2·453
June..... „	2·109	2·218	2·437	2·217	2·260	2·308	2·121	2·147
Septmbr. „	—	2·031	2·182	2·140	2·141	2·169	1·800	1·994
Decembr. „	—	2·224	2·184	2·283	2·349	2·213	2·230	2·064

PRICES, PAUPERISM, AND THE WEATHER.—Wheat rose in the three months rapidly from 60s. 7d.* to 63s. 11d. a quarter, potatoes from 77s. 6d. a ton to 155s. The price of this important esculent was doubled, and its use was greatly diminished. Mutton fell from its extremely high price, but beef remained dear.

CONSOLS, PROVISIONS, PAUPERISM, and TEMPERATURE in each of the
Nine QUARTERS ended 30th June, 1867.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quarters ending	Average Price of Consols (for Money).	Average Price of Wheat per Quarter in England and Wales.	Average Prices of Meat per lb. at Leadenhall and Newgate Markets (by the Carcase), with the <i>Mean</i> Prices.		Average Prices of Potatoes (York Regents) per Ton at Waterside Market, Southwark.	Pauperism.		Mean Tem- pera- ture.
			Beef.	Mutton.		Quarterly Average of the Number of Paupers relieved on the <i>last day</i> of each week.	In-door.	
1865	£	s. d.	d. d. d.	d. d. d.	s. s. s.			
June 30	90 ⁶ / ₈	40 6	4 ³ / ₄ —6 ³ / ₄ 5 ³ / ₄	6 ¹ / ₄ —8 ¹ / ₂ 7 ³ / ₈	90—115 102	125,846	776,016	56 ⁰ / ₂
Sept. 30	89 ⁶ / ₈	43 3	4 ¹ / ₂ —7 5 ³ / ₄	6 ¹ / ₄ —8 ³ / ₄ 7 ¹ / ₂	65—100 85	117,172	719,589	62 ⁵ / ₅
Dec. 31	88 ⁴ / ₈	44 10	4 ¹ / ₄ —7 5 ⁵ / ₈	5 ¹ / ₂ —8 ¹ / ₄ 6 ⁷ / ₈	60—90 75	129,036	725,259	46 ⁰ / ₀
1866								
Mar. 31	87	45 6	4 ¹ / ₂ —6 ³ / ₄ 5 ⁵ / ₈	5 ¹ / ₂ —7 ³ / ₄ 6 ⁵ / ₈	55—90 72	139,546	759,402	41 ² / ₂
June 30	86 ⁴ / ₈	46 6	4 ³ / ₄ —7 5 ⁷ / ₈	5 ¹ / ₂ —8 ¹ / ₂ 7	60—95 77	123,657	734,139	53 ⁰ / ₀
Sept. 30	88 ³ / ₈	51 —	5 ¹ / ₄ —7 ¹ / ₄ 6 ¹ / ₈	5 ¹ / ₂ —8 ¹ / ₄ 6 ³ / ₄	75—120 97	120,955	717,553	58 ⁹ / ₉
Dec. 31	89 ⁴ / ₈	56 8	3 ³ / ₄ —7 5 ⁷ / ₈	5 ¹ / ₄ —7 ¹ / ₂ 6 ³ / ₈	85—130 107	133,979	734,312	46 ² / ₂
1867								
Mar. 31	90 ⁷ / ₈	60 7*	4 ³ / ₄ —7 5 ⁷ / ₈	5—7 ¹ / ₄ 6 ¹ / ₈	115—160 137	147,620	832,364	38 ⁹ / ₉
June 30	92 ⁴ / ₈	63 11	4 ³ / ₄ —6 ³ / ₄ 5 ³ / ₄	5 ¹ / ₄ —7 ¹ / ₄ 6 ¹ / ₄	135—175 155	134,678	779,629	53 ⁵ / ₅

At Greenwich the mean temperature of the air in the shade was 53 \cdot 5 during the spring quarter; it was 1 \cdot 3 above the average of 96 years. Of every month the temperature was above the average; but the variations were so unusually great as to seriously affect plants of every kind. April was unsettled, windy, rainy, and warmer than usual. May, after the first few days, covered the earth with brilliant sunshine; the heat of summer filled the air, and vegetation shot out luxuriantly. Then came a great change; the sky grew cloudy, the weather cold, the nights frosty. The ground and the tender shoots of plants were frozen. Flowers were in blossom, the cuckoo, the swallow, and the nightingale had come, but it was winter weather. The young shoots of holly, ivy, walnut, beech, and even oak, were injured in many places. Strawberries and peas in flower were nipped; potatoes were damaged. At the end of May, and in the beginning of June came warmth and rain, followed by cooler days to the end of the month. The

* Printed by error in the Registrar-General's Quarterly Table, 45s. 6d.

hay crop was good, and was stacked in good condition. No signs of the potato disease were visible.

The rainfall at Greenwich was 6·3 inches, which is about half an inch above the average. The wind blew at a velocity of 17 miles an hour during April, 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ miles an hour during May and June.

DEATHS; AND THE STATE OF THE PUBLIC HEALTH.—112,523 deaths were registered during the three months of April, May, and June. The mortality was at the rate of 2·109 per cent., or 21 in 1,000; the average death-rate of the quarter being 22.

The great towns of the country have executed a certain number of useful sanitary works. They are procuring better waters, providing drainage, adopting measures for the restoration of impurities as soil to the earth, by police measures regulating lodging-houses and dwellings; and now the towns appear to be realizing some of the results in the diminished mortality of the population. Sickness has declined. There is scarcely a trace of the threatened cholera epidemic, which is still ravaging parts of Europe. Nothing in this country, perhaps, so well deserves the attention of the Sultan of Turkey and the Pacha of Egypt, as the great fact that England, which was once ravaged by the plague that preys on the East, is free from that pestilence, and has now learnt how to disarm the terrible cholera of its malignancy.

The town districts in England contained eleven millions of people at the last census. Their average mortality in the last quarter was at the annual rate of 21 in 1,000; in the ten corresponding quarters that preceded the mortality was 24 in 1,000. It is chiefly in the large town districts that the reduced mortality of the kingdom is observed, but in the country districts there was also a slight decline of death.

Average Annual Rate of Mortality to 1,000 of the Population in the Eleven Divisions of England in the Ten Years 1851-60; in the Year 1866; in the Spring, Summer, and Autumn Quarters of 1866; and in the Winter and Spring Quarters of 1867.

Divisions.	Average Annual Rate of Mortality to 1,000 Living in						
	Ten Years, 1851-60.	1866.				1867.	
		Year.	Spring Quarter.	Summer Quarter.	Autumn Quarter.	Winter Quarter.	Spring Quarter.
I. London	23·63	26·30	25·29	28·86	24·38	26·78	20·17
II. South-Eastern counties ...	19·55	19·42	19·81	18·11	17·90	21·87	18·02
III. South Midland „ ...	20·44	20·14	21·03	17·62	19·07	24·02	19·87
IV. Eastern counties	20·58	20·13	21·61	18·10	17·62	22·27	19·43
V. South-Western counties ...	20·01	20·38	21·86	17·30	18·52	23·83	19·13
VI. West Midland „ ...	22·35	22·01	24·16	17·48	19·84	24·20	19·49
VII. North Midland „ ...	21·10	20·77	22·58	17·58	18·89	23·44	19·92
VIII. North-Western „ ...	25·51	29·21	28·74	27·31	26·96	29·44	24·06
IX. Yorkshire	23·09	25·63	27·59	22·03	23·28	26·58	23·45
X. Northern counties	21·99	23·90	23·95	21·95	25·27	27·23	23·83
XI. Monmouthshire and Wales	21·28	22·79	23·45	22·31	21·49	24·19	21·85

Note.—The above mortality for the year 1866 is the mean of the quarterly rates.

In the thirteen principal cities of the United Kingdom, containing about 6,187,764 people, the mortality was at the rate of 23 in 1,000. The rates of the great cities stand thus in order: London 20, Bristol 21, Birmingham 20, Liverpool 26, Manchester 28, Salford 25, Sheffield 22, Leeds 25, Hull 22, Newcastle-on-

Tyne 27, Edinburgh 29, Glasgow 29, Dublin 27, In health, Birmingham has had the best, Edinburgh the worst of it during the season. Even Glasgow is beat by Liverpool. In addition to her excellent water, Glasgow will now get for its people the other complementary requirements of salubrity; but Manchester in these measures, as in the water supply, may take the lead.

London presents a striking contrast in health to its condition in the spring quarter of last year; the mortality now 20, was then at the rate of 25. To every five funerals in that quarter, four only were performed in this quarter. Cholera at the close of the previous June had broken out in the region of the East London water supply; in the last June no traces remained of its malignant type.

The south-eastern was the healthiest division; the mortality was at the rate of 18. The Registrar of Croydon observes that the death-rate of the district was 17, of the parish 16. The preventible diseases, he says, have been at a minimum. In a few days time the town will be again in possession of a constant supply of water. The thorough ventilation of the sewers, has greatly checked the appearance of fever of a low typhoid type, only one case having been registered during the quarter. This is one of the serious complications of watercloset drains; under that system every house is put into communication with every other house, so that the zymotic volatile stuff of disease has a chance of finding its way from house to house through this artificial channel, the only barrier being in the most favourable circumstances a film of a few inches of water. This system is an improvement on that of cesspools; but it deprives houses of the safeguards of isolation, the utility of which is evident to the grossest observation in such cases as the cattle plague. The chief security against the evils incidental to this system is to be sought in an abundant supply of water, with a fall sufficient to carry off the refuse beyond the limits of the towns where it is still liable to infect the rivers, or to surcharge the air with impurities.

ANNUAL RATE of MORTALITY *per Cent.* in TOWN and COUNTRY DISTRICTS of ENGLAND in each Quarter of the Years 1867-65.

	Area in Statute Acres.	Population Enumerated.	Quarters ending	Annual Rate of Mortality per Cent. in each Quarter of the Years			
		1861.		1867.	Mean '57-66.	1866.	1865.
In 142 Districts, and 56 Sub-districts, comprising the Chief Towns.....	3,287,151	10,930,841	March ..	2·732	2·738	2·967	2·883
			June	2·119	2·357	2·641	2·346
			Sept.	—	2·262	2·515	2·388
			Dec.	—	2·477	2·432	2·565
			Year	—	2·459	2·639	2·546
In the remaining Districts and Sub- districts of Eng- land and Wales, comprising chiefly Small Towns and Country Parishes]	34,037,732	9,135,383	Year	—	2·010	2·010	2·081
			March ..	2·315	2·326	2·252	2·522
			June	1·991	2·050	2·170	2·055
			Sept.	—	1·750	1·755	1·824
			Dec.	—	1·916	1·863	1·923

Note.—The three months, January, February, March, contain 90, in leap year 91 days; the three months, April, May, June, 91 days; each of the last two quarters of the year 92 days. For this inequality a correction has been made in the calculations, also for the difference between 365 and 365·25 days, and 366 and 365·25 days in leap year.

The earth is one of the best known disinfectants; and in the dry state it has some of those physical properties of water, which led to the invention now so common. To a scientific clergyman of the Church of England it is due that by mechanical adaptations the earth-closet system has been constructed, which promises to be as useful in the departments of public health and national agriculture as the Reverend Edward Cartwright's invention is in the cotton manufacture. The Reverend Henry Moule, M.A., vicar of Fordington, has shown how, in the easiest and cheapest way, soil in houses and towns can be disinfected, converted into mould, and delivered back to the uses of agriculture, whilst leaving fields uncontaminated and rivers unpolluted.

The mortality of the south midland and of the north midland counties was 20, in the eastern, south-western, and west midland counties 19 in 1,000. The three northern divisions are still by far the unhealthiest, not by nature, but by the negligence of the authorities, and defaults of the inhabitants; but in these counties the evidence of improvements is encouraging to the public spirit of their promoters. The mortality of the spring quarter in Cheshire and Lancashire was at the rate of 24, in Yorkshire 23, in the northern counties 24, in 1,000.

In Wales and Monmouthshire the mortality is still high, but it is lower than it was in the spring quarter of last year.

Winterton derives its water from springs and wells in the town itself, which is drained, but not efficiently, by porous pipes. Cesspools and privies abound; only four or five closets empty themselves into the sewers. A full churchyard, with bodies lying above the road, adds to the danger. Northallerton is drained by sewers, but has no organized system of water supply; it has neither earth nor water closets. These two places pay a costly tribute to death.

Towns neglecting their sanitary defences, and exposed to diarrhoea, are in danger of falling the victims of some local eruption of cholera, which it must be borne in mind is still prevalent as an epidemic in Europe.

POPULATION; BIRTHS, DEATHS; MEAN TEMPERATURE and RAINFALL in last Spring Quarter, in Thirteen Large Towns.

Cities, &c.	Estimated Population in the Middle of the Year 1867.	Births in 13 Weeks ending 29th June, 1867.	Deaths in 13 Weeks ending 29th June, 1867.	Annual Rate to 1,000 Living during the 13 Weeks ending 29th June, 1867.		Mean Temperature in 13 Weeks ending 29th June, 1867.	Rainfall in Inches in 13 Weeks ending 29th June, 1867.
				Births.	Deaths.		
Total of 13 large towns....	6,187,764	59,207	35,396	38.40	22.96	51.9	7.14
London	3,082,372	28,367	15,654	36.94	20.17	53.3	6.27
Bristol (city)	165,572	1,492	864	36.17	20.94	52.7	8.01
Birmingham (borough)....	343,948	3,251	1,703	37.94	19.87	53.4	5.45
Liverpool (borough)	492,439	5,023	3,194	40.94	26.03	53.3	5.17
Manchester (city)	362,823	3,514	2,494	38.87	27.57	52.7	7.87
Salford (borough)	115,013	1,130	718	39.43	25.06	51.6	7.65
Sheffield (borough)	225,199	2,429	1,247	43.29	22.22	50.8	9.17
Leeds (borough).....	232,428	2,760	1,464	47.66	25.28	52.8	6.99
Hull (borough)	106,740	1,050	593	39.48	22.30	—	—
Newcastle - on - Tyne } (borough)	124,960	1,253	350	40.25	27.30	49.7	4.74
Edinburgh (city)	176,081	1,676	1,281	38.20	29.20	50.0	8.40
Glasgow (city)	440,979	4,975	3,162	45.28	28.78	49.9	10.82
Dublin (city and some } suburbs)	319,210	2,287	2,174	28.76	27.34	53.1	4.70

ENGLAND:—MARRIAGES *Registered in Quarters ended 31st March, 1867-65; and BIRTHS and DEATHS in Quarters ended 30th June, 1867-65.*

1 DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	2 AREA in Statute Acres.	3 POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	4 5 6 MARRIAGES in Quarters ended 31st March.		
			'67.	'66.	'65.
ENGLD. & WALES....Totals	37,324,883	No. 20,066,224	No. 36,380	No. 37,576	No. 36,807
I. London	77,997	2,803,989	6,359	6,685	6,381
II. South-Eastern	4,065,935	1,847,661	2,885	2,851	2,762
III. South Midland	3,201,290	1,295,515	1,612	1,509	1,657
IV. Eastern	3,214,099	1,142,562	1,427	1,489	1,477
V. South-Western	4,993,660	1,835,714	2,795	2,992	3,058
VI. West Midland	3,865,332	2,436,568	4,108	4,221	4,290
VII. North Midland.....	3,540,797	1,288,928	2,023	1,975	1,897
VIII. North-Western.....	2,000,227	2,935,540	6,583	6,545	6,312
IX. Yorkshire	3,654,636	2,015,541	4,177	4,535	4,278
X. Northern	3,492,322	1,151,372	2,236	2,513	2,470
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	5,218,588	1,312,834	2,175	2,261	2,225

7 DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	8 9 10 BIRTHS in Quarters ended 30th June.			11 12 13 DEATHS in Quarters ended 30th June.		
	'67.	'66.	'65.	'67.	'66.	'65.
ENGLD. & WALES....Totals	No. 199,649	No. 192,459	No. 192,988	No. 112,523	No. 128,692	No. 115,892
I. London	28,367	26,776	26,444	15,654	19,291	17,370
II. South-Eastern	16,687	15,749	15,813	8,967	9,733	9,121
III. South Midland.....	11,985	11,536	11,833	6,611	6,964	6,590
IV. Eastern	10,037	9,857	10,022	5,621	6,235	5,863
V. South-Western	15,216	14,973	15,196	8,852	10,096	9,459
VI. West Midland	24,903	24,380	24,080	12,828	15,694	12,939
VII. North Midland.....	12,292	11,872	11,893	6,633	7,477	6,752
VIII. North-Western.....	31,894	30,412	30,406	19,478	22,883	19,318
IX. Yorkshire	22,132	20,864	21,367	12,673	14,732	13,081
X. Northern	13,036	13,147	13,163	7,600	7,506	6,973
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	13,100	12,893	12,771	7,606	8,081	8,426

REMARKS ON THE WEATHER

DURING THE QUARTER ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1867.

By JAMES GLAISHER, ESQ., F.R.S., &c., President of the Meteorological Society.

The weather during the month of April was changeable, being at times very unsettled and stormy, with occasional heavy gales of wind and frequent falls of rain. The temperature of the air was subject to frequent variation, but was generally in excess over its average for the period. May opened with unsettled weather, but a remarkable change took place on the 6th, when a period of clear sky with brilliant sunshine set in. The temperature rose on the 6th and 7th of May to an excess of 15° and 17° above their averages. For the 42 days ending the 12th of May, the mean daily excess of temperature was $4\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. On 13th May a great change of weather took place; the summer-like weather which so suddenly set in, in the second week in May, was as suddenly succeeded by a period of severe cold weather, the sky became cloudy, and the temperature lowered at night to below the freezing point; from the 21st day to the 25th, the weather was more like winter than is ordinarily experienced in May, and the mean temperatures of these days were from 10° to 14° below their averages; the mean deficiency of daily temperature from 13th May to 26th May, was 7° nearly. For a few days at the end of May and the beginning of June, the weather was moderately fine and warm, the average daily excess of temperature being 4° . From 3rd June the weather was changeable, there being a few hot days together, succeeded by long periods of cold weather, and upon the average of the last 28 days of the quarter there was a deficiency of temperature amounting to more than $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ daily.

Vegetation at the end of April was generally backward, and the cold weather in the middle of May greatly checked progress. June was dry; and the hay crop was generally stated to be good in quality and large in quantity, and stacked in good condition. No signs of the potato disease were reported up to the end of the quarter; the wheat crop was variously reported as very light and thin in some places and much better in others.

The mean temperature of April was $49^{\circ}\cdot 0$, being $3^{\circ}\cdot 1$ higher than the average of the preceding 96 years, and higher than that of any year since 1845, excepting 1863, which was $49^{\circ}\cdot 1$.

The mean temperature of May was $53^{\circ}\cdot 4$, being $0^{\circ}\cdot 8$ higher than the average of the preceding 96 years, and higher than either of the two preceding years.

The mean temperature of June was $58^{\circ}\cdot 1$, being the same as the average of the preceding 96 years, and $1^{\circ}\cdot 0$ below that of last year.

The mean high day temperatures were respectively $1^{\circ}\cdot 3$ and $0^{\circ}\cdot 2$ higher than their averages in April and May, and $0^{\circ}\cdot 9$ lower in June.

The mean low night temperatures were above their averages to the respective amounts of $3^{\circ}\cdot 3$ and $0^{\circ}\cdot 5$, in April and May, and $1^{\circ}\cdot 1$ below the average in June.

Therefore in April and May both the days and nights were warm, whilst in June they were cold.

The daily ranges of temperature were respectively 2°·1, 0°·3, and 0°·2 lower in April, May, and June.

The fall of rain was 0·5 in. above the average in April, 0·2 in. above the average in May, and 0·2 in. below the average in June.

The mean temperature of the air at Greenwich in the three months ending May, constituting the three spring months, was 46°·7, being 0°·4 below the average of the preceding 26 years.

1867. Months.	Temperature of										Elastic Force of Vapour.		Weight of Vapour in a Cubic Foot of Air.	
	Air.			Evaporation.		Dew Point.		Air— Daily Range.		Water of the Thames				
	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 96 Years.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.		Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.
April ...	49·0	+3·1	+2·2	46·1	+2·3	43·0	+2·6	16·4	−2·1	49·0	In. ·277	In. +·026	Gr. 3·1	Gr. +0·2
May.....	53·4	+0·8	+0·5	49·4	+0·2	45·4	−0·1	20·0	−0·3	54·6	·304	+·002	3·4	0·0
June ...	58·1	0·0	−1·0	53·8	−0·9	50·0	−0·8	21·1	−0·2	61·3	·361	−·012	4·0	−0·2
Mean ...	53·5	+1·3	+0·6	49·8	+0·5	46·1	+0·6	19·2	−0·9	55·0	·314	+·005	3·5	0·0

1867. Months.	Degree of Humidity.		Reading of Barometer.		Weight of a Cubic Foot of Air.		Rain.		Daily Hori- zontal Move- ment of the Air.	Reading of Thermometer on Grass.				
	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Amnt.	Diff. from Aver- age of 52 Years.		Number of Nights it was			Low- est Read- ing at Night.	High- est Read- ing at Night.
										At or below 30°.	Be- tween 30° and 40°.	Above 40°.		
April ...	80	+ 1	In. 29·629	In. −·139	Gr. 539	Gr. − 4	In. 2·2	In. +0·5	Miles. 407	3	14	13	° 25·1	° 49·2
May	74	− 2	29·738	−·037	537	− 5	2·3	+0·2	234	4	9	18	25·7	50·0
June ...	75	+ 1	29·935	+·139	535	+ 4	1·8	−0·2	232	1	5	24	30·0	54·2
Mean ...	76	0	29·767	−·012	537	− 2	Sum 6·3	Sum +0·5	Mean 291	Sum 8	Sum 28	Sum 55	Lowest 25·1	Highest 54·2

Note.—In reading this table it will be borne in mind that the sign (−) minus signifies below the average, and that the sign (+) plus signifies above the average.

ENGLAND :—*Meteorological Table, Quarter ended 30th June, 1867.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
NAMES OF STATIONS.	Mean Pressure of Dry Air reduced to the Level of the Sea.	Highest Reading of the Thermo- meter.	Lowest Reading of the Thermo- meter.	Range of Tem- perature in the Quarter.	Mean Monthly Range of Tem- perature.	Mean Daily Range of Tem- perature.	Mean Tem- perature of the Air.	Mean Degree of Hu- midity.
	in.	°	°	°	°	°	°	
Guernsey	29·651	74·0	40·0	34·0	26·3	11·0	52·1	84
Barnstaple	29·611	81·0	33·0	48·0	35·8	13·9	53·7	81
Royal Observatory	29·633	83·6	30·5	53·1	41·2	19·2	53·5	76
Royston	29·629	84·3	29·4	54·9	45·1	19·7	52·7	80
Lampeter	29·630	81·0	26·6	54·4	44·6	17·5	51·9	80
Grantham	29·572	79·6	31·7	47·9	47·2	15·1	52·5	78
Derby	29·579	80·0	32·0	48·0	30·7	15·7	51·1	80
Liverpool	29·603	79·5	34·0	45·5	31·1	13·8	51·4	85
Wakefield	29·631	84·5	29·3	55·2	42·9	21·5	52·8	70
Stonyhurst	29·585	77·9	31·4	46·5	34·9	14·5	50·7	81
North Shields ...	29·640	71·5	32·0	39·5	31·6	11·4	47·5	87

10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
NAMES OF STATIONS.	WIND.					Mean Amount of Cloud.	RAIN.	
	Mean estimated Strength.	Relative Proportion of					Number of Days on which it fell.	Amount collected.
		N.	E.	S.	W.			
Guernsey	1·5	7	6	7	10	4·3	34	in. 5·1
Barnstaple	1·1	5	6	8	11	4·2	41	7·2
Royal Observatory	0·6	7	6	8	9	6·7	39	6·3
Royston	—	8	3	8	11	6·7	43	6·5
Lampeter	0·9	4	5	10	11	7·5	46	8·2
Grantham	0·2	6	6	8	10	7·6	50	6·1
Derby	—	7	6	5	12	—	40	7·5
Liverpool	—	—	—	—	—	7·0	45	5·1
Wakefield	1·4	6	5	6	13	5·8	47	8·2
Stonyhurst	0·7	5	7	6	12	8·4	56	10·1
North Shields ...	1·5	7	7	7	9	6·6	48	5·7

No. II.—SCOTLAND.

MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS IN THE QUARTER
ENDED 30TH JUNE, 1867.

Scotland, for the purposes of registration, is divided into 1,016 districts; and this return comprises the BIRTHS, DEATHS, and MARRIAGES registered in these during the quarter ending 30th June, 1867. From these it would appear that the births have been in a higher, but the deaths in a slightly lower proportion than the average of the corresponding quarter of the ten previous years; while the marriages have been the usual average.

BIRTHS.—30,393 births were registered in Scotland during the second quarter of the year 1867, being in the annual proportion of 383 births in every 10,000 persons of the estimated population. This is considerably above the average birth-rate of the quarter during the ten previous years, which was only at the rate of 376 births annually in every 10,000 persons (Table III), but was below the birth-rate of the quarter during the years 1864 and 1865. The English birth-rate during the second quarter of 1867 was higher than during any of the ten previous years, being at the rate of 374 births in every 10,000 persons—the average of the ten previous years having been only 362 births in every 10,000 persons.

TABLE I.—*Number of Births, Deaths, and Marriages in Scotland, and in the Town and Country Districts during the Quarter ending 30th June, 1867, and their Proportion to the Population; also the Number of Illegitimate Births, and their Proportion to the Total Births.*

	Population.		Total Births.			Illegitimate Births.		
	Census, 1861.	Estimated, 1867.	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every
SCOTLAND	3,066,633	3,170,769	30,393	3·83	26	2,730	8·9	11·1
126 town districts	1,619,614	1,718,968	18,207	4·23	23	1,633	8·9	11·1
890 rural „	1,447,019	1,451,801	12,186	3·35	29	1,097	9·0	11·1

	Population.		Deaths.			Marriages.		
	Census, 1861.	Estimated, 1867.	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every
SCOTLAND	3,066,633	3,170,769	17,464	2·20	45	5,602	0·70	141
126 town districts	1,619,614	1,718,968	11,159	2·59	38	3,533	0·82	121
890 rural „	1,447,019	1,451,801	6,305	1·73	57	2,069	0·57	175

Note.—The constitution of several of the districts was altered on January 1, 1867; consequently the numbers of the population in the town and rural districts differ somewhat from those of previous years.

The town and rural districts exhibited the usual difference in the proportion of their births. Thus, in the 126 town districts (which embrace the towns which, in 1861 had 3,000 inhabitants and upwards), 18,207 births were registered; while in the 890 rural districts (embracing the remainder of the population of Scotland), only 12,186 births occurred. This indicates an annual proportion of 423 births in every 10,000 persons in the town districts, but only 335 births in a like population in the rural districts. (Table I.)

Of the 30,393 births, 27,663 were legitimate, and 2,730 illegitimate; indicating that 8·9 per cent. of the births were illegitimate. In general, the proportion of illegitimate births is highest in the rural districts; but during the past quarter the proportion is almost identical for town and country. Table II exhibits the proportion of illegitimate births in the several divisions and counties of Scotland, and generally accords with previous returns, showing that the counties included in the north-eastern and southern divisions furnish the highest proportion of illegitimate births, the counties of Bute and Kinross for the past quarter being the only exceptions to the rule. Thus 12 per cent. of the births were illegitimate in Kirkeudbright, 12·1 per cent. in Banff, 12·4 in Aberdeen, 13·1 in Elgin, 13·2 in Dumfries, 13·3 in Kincardine, 13·8 in Kinross, 14·9 in Wigtown, 15·4 in Bute, and 23 per cent. in Nairn.

Of the children born during the quarter, 15,545 were boys, and 14,848 were girls; being in the proportion of 104·7 boys for every 100 girls at birth. 10,260 births were registered in April, 10,443 in May, and 9,690 in June, being at the rate of 342 births daily during April, 337 daily during May, and 323 daily during June.

TABLE II.—*Proportion of Illegitimate in every Hundred Births in the Divisions and Counties of Scotland, during the Quarter ending 30th June, 1867.*

Divisions.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.
SCOTLAND	8·9						
Northern	6·6	Shetland	3·8	Forfar	11·2	Lanark	8·2
North-Western	5·1	Orkney	7·2	Perth	10·4	Linlithgow .	9·1
North-Eastern	12·6	Caithness	8·7	Fife	8·1	Edinburgh .	8·0
East Midland..	10·2	Sutherland....	4·9	Kinross	13·8	Haddington	8·0
West Midland.	7·8	Ross and } Cromarty }	4·6	Clackman- } nan	10·9	Berwick	5·8
South-Western	8·1	Inverness	5·6	Stirling	7·9	Peebles.....	8·2
South-Eastern.	7·9	Nairn	23·0	Dumbarton ..	6·9	Selkirk	7·2
Southern	12·2	Elgin	13·1	Argyll	7·2	Roxburgh ..	8·7
		Banff	12·1	Bute	15·4	Dumfries	13·2
		Aberdeen	12·4	Renfrew	6·9	Kirkeud- } bright .. }	12·0
		Kincardine....	13·3	Ayr.....	8·6	Wigtown ...	14·9

DEATHS.—17,464 deaths were registered in Scotland during the second quarter of 1867, being in the annual proportion of 220 deaths in every 10,000 persons of the estimated population, or 2·20 in every 100 persons. This is a proportion slightly below the average death-rate of the quarter during the ten previous years, which was at the mean rate of 221 deaths in every 10,000 persons. The mortality, of England has also been below its mean during the second quarter, seeing that only 112,523 deaths were registered during that period, indicating an annual death-rate of 211 deaths in every 10,000 persons, the mean of the ten previous years being 222 deaths in a like population.

The deaths in the towns, as usual, greatly exceeded those in the rural districts. Thus, of the 17,464 deaths, 11,159 occurred in the town and 6,305 in the rural

districts; indicating a proportion of 259 deaths in every 10,000 persons in the town districts, but only 173 deaths in a like population in the rural districts.

Of the deaths, 6,234 were registered in April, 6,010 in May, and 5,220 in June; being at the rate of 206 deaths daily during April, 194 deaths daily during May, and 174 daily during June.

TABLE III.—*Number of Births, Deaths, and Marriages in Scotland, and their Proportion to the Population, Estimated to the Middle of each Year, during each Quarter of the Years 1867 to 1863 inclusive.*

	1867.		1866.		1865.		1864.		1863.	
	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.
<i>1st Quarter—</i>										
Births	27,969	3·52	28,876	3·66	28,608	3·65	28,177	3·61	26,733	3·44
Deaths	19,981	2·51	19,075	2·42	20,786	2·65	22,576	2·89	19,229	2·47
Marriages ..	5,332	0·66	5,627	0·71	5,407	0·69	5,333	0·68	5,126	0·66
Mean Tem- perature }	36°·5		38°·0		35°·3		35°·7		40°·9	
<i>2nd Quarter—</i>										
Births	30,393	3·83	29,801	3·78	30,332	3·86	29,992	3·84	29,655	3·82
Deaths	17,464	2·20	18,556	2·35	17,066	2·17	18,445	2·36	17,963	2·31
Marriages ..	5,602	0·70	6,019	0·76	5,698	0·72	5,710	0·73	5,594	0·71
Mean Tem- perature }	—		49°·3		51°·5		49°·9		49°·0	
<i>3rd Quarter—</i>										
Births	—	—	27,197	3·45	27,320	3·48	27,063	3·47	26,366	3·40
Deaths	—	—	15,451	1·95	15,907	2·02	16,131	2·06	16,273	2·09
Marriages ..	—	—	5,089	0·64	5,335	0·68	4,993	0·64	4,900	0·62
Mean Tem- perature }	—		54°·4		57°·5		54°·5		53°·9	
<i>4th Quarter—</i>										
Births	—	—	27,765	3·52	26,866	3·42	27,213	3·49	26,587	3·42
Deaths	—	—	18,191	2·30	17,072	2·17	17,151	2·19	18,016	2·32
Marriages ..	—	—	6,894	0·87	7,137	0·91	6,639	0·85	6,614	0·84
Mean Tem- perature }	—		43°·5		43°·4		42°·0		43°·6	
<i>Year—</i>										
Population.	—		3,153,413		3,136,057		3,118,701		3,101,345	
Births	—	—	113,639	3·60	113,126	3·60	112,445	3·60	109,341	3·52
Deaths	—	—	71,273	2·26	70,821	2·25	74,303	2·38	71,481	2·30
Marriages ..	—	—	23,629	0·75	23,577	0·75	22,675	0·72	22,234	0·71

INCREASE OF THE POPULATION.—As the births amounted to 30,393, and the deaths to 17,464, the natural increase of the population by births was 12,929. From that number ought to be deducted all the emigrants from Scotland, could their number be ascertained. From a return furnished by the Emigration Com-

missioners, it appears that during the quarter ending 30th June, 73,571 persons emigrated from the ports of Great Britain and Ireland, at which there are emigration offices. Of these 16,328 were of English origin, 4,584 Scotch, 38,637 Irish, and 12,428 foreigners, while of 1,594 the nativity was not ascertained. If 101 be added to the 4,584 Scotch, as their proportion of the emigrants whose origin was not ascertained, the Scottish emigrants would amount to 4,685 persons, which number, deducted from the excess of births over deaths, would leave 8,244 as the increase of the population during the quarter, making no allowance for the emigration from the ports at which there are no emigration offices, nor for the migration to England, nor for drafts to the army, navy, &c.

MARRIAGES.—5,602 marriages were registered in Scotland during the quarter ending 30th June, being in the annual proportion of 70 marriages in every 10,000 persons. This is the exact average of the quarter during the ten previous years, but is greatly below the proportion of the corresponding quarter in 1866, when it amounted to 76 marriages in every 10,000 persons.

Of the 5,602 marriages, 3,533 were contracted in the 126 town districts, and only 2,069 in the 890 rural districts; giving the annual proportion of 82 marriages in every 10,000 persons in the town, but only 57 marriages in a like population in the rural districts.

Of the marriages, 1,351 were registered in April, 1,060 in May, and 3,191 in June.

HEALTH OF THE POPULATION.—The health of the population during the second quarter was greatly better than during the corresponding quarter of the previous year, and the mortality was less by 1,092 deaths. In so far as appears from the registrars' notes, it does not appear that any epidemic was prevalent over Scotland during the quarter. Everywhere fever appeared to be losing its epidemic character, and falling to its normal condition, and the usual diseases of childhood were not more common than usual. No cases of epidemic cholera had been reported during the quarter. One fact merits notice, viz., that although the general mortality over Scotland was slightly lower than during the corresponding quarter of the ten previous years, the mortality of the town districts was higher; and the general mortality was only kept down by the much lower proportion of deaths which had occurred in the rural districts.

WEATHER.—April was a cold, ungenial, rainy month, with a more clouded sky, less sunshine, and more rain than usual. The mean temperature was, however, somewhat higher than usual, but this was caused by the nights being less cold, from the clouded sky arresting the radiation of caloric, so that the range of temperature was $2^{\circ}4$ less than the average for the month.

May was also a cold ungenial month, particularly during its latter half. During the first and second weeks south-west winds chiefly prevailed, and during their continuance vegetation rapidly advanced. During the latter half of the month, however, cold east winds prevailed; and in all the higher parts of the country, frosts occurred almost every morning, blighting vegetation. During the month, the weather in Scotland was often the very opposite of that in England. Thus, during the second week, while the mean temperature of the Scottish towns was from 49° to 52° , that of London and the English towns was from 60° to 63° , the usual difference due to latitude being only two degrees. During the month, also, the range of temperature was less than usual, from the more clouded sky preventing the heat by day, and the cold by night, being so great as formerly.

June had also a lower mean temperature than the average of former years, with a greater amount of cloud, less sunshine, less daily range of temperature, and less rain, though, like all former months, with a greater amount of humidity of the atmosphere. The close heat, however, during a few days was very oppressive, particularly on the 11th. Yet such was the hazy state of the atmosphere, that on that day the highest temperature by the registering thermometer was only 75° . In many parts of the country frost was observed on the morning of the 21st.

SCOTLAND:—MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, and DEATHS Registered in the Quarter ended 30th June, 1867.

1	2	3	4	5	6
DIVISIONS. (Scotland)	AREA in Statute Acres.	POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
		No.	No.	No.	No.
SCOTLAND Totals	19,639,377	3,062,294	5,602	30,393	17,464
I. Northern	2,261,622	130,422	119	841	506
II. North-Western.....	4,739,876	167,329	127	1,095	684
III. North-Eastern	2,429,594	366,783	625	3,299	1,604
IV. East Midland	2,790,492	523,822	966	4,962	2,845
V. West Midland	2,693,176	242,507	354	2,254	1,210
VI. South-Western.....	1,462,397	1,008,253	2,134	11,977	6,993
VII. South-Eastern	1,192,524	408,962	953	4,214	2,574
VIII. Southern	2,069,696	214,216	324	1,751	1,048

No. III.—IRELAND.

MARRIAGES IN THE QUARTER ENDED 31ST MARCH, 1867;
AND BIRTHS AND DEATHS IN THE QUARTER ENDED
30TH JUNE, 1867.

This return includes the MARRIAGES *registered* during January, February, and March, and the BIRTHS and DEATHS *registered* during April, May, and June, 1867; in the 723 registrars' districts of Ireland. These districts are coextensive with the dispensary districts of the 163 Poor Law Unions; which latter form the districts of the Superintendent Registrars.

MARRIAGES.—There were 12,816 marriages *registered* in Ireland during the first quarter of 1867, affording an annual ratio of 1 in every 108, or '922 per cent. of the *estimated* population.* Of this number 10,656 were between Roman Catholics, representing a ratio of 1 marriage in every 106, or '946 per cent. of Roman Catholics,† and 2,160 were between Protestants, affording a ratio of 1 in every 149, or '670 per cent. of the Protestant population.† The number of marriages *registered* in the corresponding quarter of 1866 was 12,014; in the first

* For estimated population see p. 47 of the Quarterly Report.

† According to the Census of 1861.

quarter of 1865 it was 12,266; and in the corresponding quarter of 1864 the number *registered* was 9,602.

BIRTHS.—The births *registered* during the second quarter of the present year amounted to 40,039—20,524 boys and 19,515 girls—affording an annual ratio of 1 in every 34·7, or 2·88 per cent. of the *estimated* population.* The number of births registered during the corresponding quarter of 1866 was 38,816, in 1865 39,163, and in 1864 (the first year of their registration in Ireland), 38,701. The births registered during the past quarter in the following eighteen unions or superintendent registrars' districts afforded an annual ratio exceeding 1 in 31 of the population,† viz., Belfast, 1 in 19; Bantry, 1 in 24; Clifden, 1 in 26; Lurgan, Killarney, and Millstreet, each 1 in 27; Skibbereen, Skull, Castletown (co. Cork), Clonakilty, Kenmare, and Ballymena, each 1 in 28; Dromore West, Dunmanway, and Macroom, each 1 in 29; and Kinsale, Kilmacthomas, and Newcastle, each 1 in 30.

In the following ten unions or superintendent registrars' districts the number of births *registered* during the quarter did not exceed an annual ratio of 1 in 50:—Ballyshannon, Dunfanaghy, Glenties, and Tuam, each 1 in 50; Glennamaddy, 1 in 51; Portumna, 1 in 52; Donaghmore, 1 in 55; Corrofin, 1 in 58; Roscrea, 1 in 62; and Ballyvaghan, 1 in 77.

DEATHS.—There were 24,234 deaths—12,224 males and 12,010 females—*registered* during the quarter, affording an annual ratio of 1 in 57·3 or 1·74 per cent. of the *estimated* population. The number *registered* during the second quarter of 1866 was 24,763. During the second quarter of 1865 the number was 24,380; and in the corresponding quarter of 1864 it was 24,448.

The death-rate during the quarter, in the following fifteen unions or superintendent registrars' districts, exceeded 1 in 50 of the population:—Belfast and Dublin North, each 1 in 35; Clonmel, 1 in 36; Dublin South, 1 in 37; Carrick-on-Suir, 1 in 38; Cork, 1 in 45; Bantry, Celbridge, and Mountmellick, each 1 in 46; Newtownards and Wexford, each 1 in 47; Kilkeel, Callan, and Dungarvan, each 1 in 48; and Waterford, 1 in 49.

In the following twenty-five unions or superintendent registrars' districts the deaths *registered* during the quarter did not equal an annual ratio of 1 in 80 of the population:—Lisnaskea, 1 in 81; Oughterard and Cahirsiveen, each 1 in 82; Ballymoney and Manorhamilton, each 1 in 83; Glin, 1 in 84; Bailieborough and Skull, each 1 in 85; Letterkenny and Ballina, each 1 in 86; Ballyshannon, 1 in 88; Stranorlar and Kilrush, each 1 in 89; Boyle, 1 in 90; Donegal, Ennistimon, Glennamaddy, and Lismore, each 1 in 91; Ballinrobe, Belmullet, Dromore West, and Scarriff, each 1 in 93; Swineford, 1 in 94; Castlederg, 1 in 95; and Tuam, 1 in 96; whilst in the undermentioned eight unions or superintendent registrars' districts the deaths registered during the quarter did not afford an annual ratio of 1 in 100 of the population,* viz., Gortin, 1 in 101; Portumna, 1 in 104; Castlereagh, 1 in 105; Killala, 1 in 106; Carrick-on-Shannon, 1 in 112; Ballyvaghan, 1 in 122; Glenties, 1 in 123; and Dunfanaghy, 1 in 127.

EMIGRATION.—According to the returns obtained by the enumerators, the number of emigrants who left the ports of Ireland during the quarter ended 30th June last, amounted to 34,889—19,556 males and 15,333 females—being 6,235 less than the number who emigrated during the corresponding quarter of 1866, when the number amounted to 41,124. The number in the second quarter of 1865 was 37,588, and in the corresponding quarter of 1864 it was 48,802.

ESTIMATED DECREASE OF THE POPULATION.—The number of births *registered* during the quarter ended 30th June last being 40,039; the deaths, 24,234; and the number of emigrants, 34,889—(according to the returns obtained by the enumerators at the several seaports);—a decrease of 19,084 would, therefore, appear to have taken place in the population of Ireland during that period.

* For estimated population, see p. 47 of the Quarterly Report.

† According to the Census of 1861.

Emigration from Ireland during the Months of April, May, and June, in 1866 and 1867.

Months.	Number of Emigrants.									
	Males.			Females.				Total.		
	1866.	1867.	De-crease.	1866.	1867.	In-crease.	De-crease.	1866.	1867.	De-crease.
April	9,879	7,154	2,725	6,703	5,448	—	1,225	16,582	12,602	3,980
May	8,985	7,375	1,610	6,249	5,844	—	405	15,234	13,219	2,015
June	5,467	5,027	440	3,841	4,041	200	—	9,308	9,068	240
Total ...	24,331	19,556	4,775	16,793	15,333	200	1,460	41,124	34,889	6,235

PRICES OF PROVISIONS AND PAUPERISM.—It will be seen from the preceding that, with the exception of beef, the prices of provisions were much higher during the past quarter than they were in the corresponding quarter of last year, and that there was a considerable increase in the number of persons receiving poor law relief.

The average price of Messrs. Manders and Co.'s 4-lb. loaf for the second quarter of the present year was 8*d.*, being three halfpence higher than the average for the corresponding quarter of last year; the price was 7½*d.* during the first two weeks and 8*d.* during the remaining weeks of the quarter.

The average price of oatmeal for the past quarter at the Dublin Corn Exchange was 18*s.* 5*d.* per cwt., against 15*s.* 8*d.* for the corresponding quarter of last year. The average prices of potatoes per cwt. at the Dublin Potato Market ranged from 5*s.* 3*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d.*, being much higher than for the corresponding quarter of last year, when the prices ranged from 3*s.* 1*d.* to 3*s.* 11*d.*

The weekly average prices of beef at the Dublin Cattle Market for the quarter ranged from 53*s.* 6*d.* to 70*s.* 6*d.* per cwt., against 58*s.* to 72*s.* 6*d.* for the corresponding quarter of last year.

The average number of persons receiving in-door relief in the Irish work-houses during the second quarter of 1867 was 55,399, against 51,404 for the corresponding quarter of 1866; the greatest number (57,664) was on Saturday in the first week of the quarter; on the corresponding day of the previous year there were but 54,810; the lowest number was on Saturday in the last week of the quarter, the number amounting to 52,787, against 48,444 on the corresponding day in 1866.

The average weekly number of persons receiving out-door relief was 15,527, against 11,982 for the second quarter of 1866.

Of the persons receiving in-door relief during the second quarter of 1867 an average number of 425 in each week were located in asylums for the blind and the deaf and dumb, and in extern hospitals; in the corresponding quarter of 1866 the average weekly number was 466.

THE WEATHER.—The following meteorological observations, taken at the Ordnance Survey Office,* Phoenix Park, Dublin, during the second quarter of the years 1864, 1865, 1866, and 1867, respectively, have been obligingly furnished by Captain Wilkinson, R.E., by direction of the Superintendent of the Ordnance Survey.

The mean height of the barometer during the second quarter of the present year was 29.740 inches (in the corresponding quarter of 1866, 1865, and 1864 it was

* Latitude 53° 21' 44'' 65 north, longitude 6° 21' 6'' 35 west. Height above the sea 158.8 feet. From the 1st January, 1865, inclusive, the barometer has been corrected for altitude, as well as reduced to 32° Fahrenheit.

29·761 inches, 29·916 inches, and 29·838 inches respectively) ; the highest reading (30·554 inches) was on the 27th June, at 9·30 P.M., wind N.W., and the lowest (28·914 inches) was on the 14th April, at 3·30 P.M., wind W.

Meteorological Observations taken at the Ordnance Survey Office, Phoenix Park, Dublin.

Months.	Barometer.			Thermometer.			Rain-fall.
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	
	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	°	°	°	Inches.
April, 1864	30·166	29·425	29·895	69·1	29·0	50·1	·792
„ '65	30·202	29·520	29·974	68·9	31·2	50·2	1·304
„ '66	30·277	29·253	29·714	66·4	29·0	47·6	1·927
„ '67	30·163	28·914	29·556	63·3	29·8	49·5	2·212
May, 1864	30·113	29·502	29·870	79·0	31·8	54·4	1·730
„ '65	30·176	29·223	29·695	72·9	37·8	53·4	3·578
„ '66	30·227	29·299	29·828	70·4	29·5	49·4	2·217
„ '67	30·143	29·173	29·692	70·6	29·7	52·0	2·465
June, 1864	30·126	29·202	29·749	73·7	33·2	56·4	1·561
„ '65	30·378	29·328	30·078	83·9	40·0	60·9	·934
„ '66	30·078	29·252	29·741	79·8	39·0	57·4	3·652
„ '67	30·554	29·325	29·973	79·4	38·5	58·2	·496
Mean, 2nd qr., 1864	30·135	29·376	29·838	73·9	31·3	53·6	Total. 4·083
„ '65	30·252	29·357	29·916	75·2	36·3	54·8	5·816
„ '66	30·194	29·268	29·761	72·2	32·5	51·5	7·796
„ '67	30·287	29·137	29·740	71·1	32·7	53·2	5·173

Months.	Direction of the Wind at 9·30 A.M.								Calm at 9·30 A.M.
	Number of Days on which the Wind blew from the								
	N.	N.E.	E.	S.E.	S.	S.W.	W.	N.W.	
April, 1864	1	4	8	—	2	6	7	2	—
„ '65	1	9	9	—	2	4	3	1	1
„ '66	3	5	7	1	3	7	2	—	2
„ '67	—	—	1	3	1	8	13	4	—
May, 1864	2	2	8	2	1	5	6	5	—
„ '65	4	3	5	3	3	10	3	—	—
„ '66	1	3	8	4	—	6	3	5	1
„ '67	2	—	9	6	5	6	2	1	—
June, 1864	3	—	1	1	1	10	13	—	1
„ '65	2	3	8	3	—	2	11	1	—
„ '66	—	—	5	1	1	8	6	5	4
„ '67	4	1	1	—	2	5	5	12	—
Total, 2nd qr., 1864....	6	6	17	3	4	21	26	7	1
„ '65....	7	15	22	6	5	16	17	2	1
„ '66....	4	8	20	6	4	21	11	10	7
„ '67....	6	1	11	9	8	19	20	17	—

The mean temperature of the air during the quarter was $53\cdot2^{\circ}$ (it was $51\cdot5^{\circ}$, $54\cdot8^{\circ}$, and $53\cdot6^{\circ}$, respectively, in the corresponding quarters of 1866, 1865, and 1864); the maximum temperature ($79\cdot4^{\circ}$) was on the 26th June, and the minimum ($29\cdot7^{\circ}$) was on the 22nd May.

Rain or snow fell on 47 days during the quarter. The rain-fall measured $5\cdot173$ inches; in the second quarter of 1866, 1865, and 1864 it was $7\cdot796$ inches, $5\cdot816$ inches, and $4\cdot083$ inches respectively. The greatest monthly rain-fall was in May, when $2\cdot465$ inches were registered; and the greatest amount in 24 hours ($\cdot733$ of an inch) fell on the 10th of same month. In June the rain-fall measured only $\cdot496$ of an inch, a less quantity than fell in the corresponding month of any year since 1849, when the rain-fall in June was only $\cdot397$ of an inch.

There was a prevalence of westerly winds, the wind having been from W. on 20 days; from S.W. on 19 days; and from N.W. on 17 days. It blew from E. on 11 days; from S.E. on 9 days; from S. on 8 days; from N. on 6 days; and from N.E. on 1 day at 9.30 A.M.

HEALTH OF THE PEOPLE.—The state of the public health during the quarter ended June 30th has been on the whole satisfactory, the number of deaths showing a decrease of 529, when compared with the number registered in the corresponding period of last year.

Diseases of the respiratory organs, induced by the inclemency of the weather, proved very fatal, and, as usual, most so among the old and the very young.

With some exceptions, there has been a comparative freedom from diseases assuming an epidemic form. The various forms of fever prevailed in some districts, and one form has excited much alarm, in consequence of the unhappy misnomer which was applied to it. The disease is rapidly declining, and certainly, as many recoveries have been reported it is not entitled to the fearful name of black death.

The total number of deaths in the Dublin registration district from March, 1866, to 30th June, 1867, certified to as "*febris nigra*," "*purpura maligna*," "*purpuric fever*," "*cerebro-spinal arachnitis*," &c., did not amount to more than 70.

Some deaths from "*purpura maligna*" and "*cerebro-spinal arachnitis*" have been returned from 18 of the country districts.

Measles, scarlatina, and whooping-cough proved very fatal in certain localities. In the Achill district, Newport union, of the 35 deaths registered, 20 were referred to whooping-cough.

No death from small-pox has been mentioned in the registrars' notes for the past quarter.

The registrar of the Carney district, No. 1, Sligo union, reports the death of a woman "from uterine inflammation after parturition, caused by the unskilful management of a midwife," and adds that "the brutal treatment to which the poor are subjected at the hands of these women is most lamentable; instrumental aid, the alternative in almost every case to which the medical man is called. I would beg to urge upon my dispensary brethren similarly circumstanced to give a return of these cases so palpably attributable to the want of trained midwives in their respective districts."

Old age furnished a very large contingent to the death register during the quarter. In the Portglenone district, Ballymena union, one-third of the deaths registered occurred in persons from 70 to 90 years of age; in the Lisburn district, Lisburn union, 16 of the deaths registered were of persons who had passed the three score and ten years; and the registrar of the Tallow district, Lismore union, states that "a female died at the extreme age of 108 years, having retained her faculties to the last."

The beneficial effects resulting from the improved sanitary condition of their districts are recorded by the registrars of Swords, Pomeroy, Kilskeer, Ballyragget, Galway, Castlegregory, Gurteen, and Carlow. In those districts where sanitary precautions are neglected, there fever is always present.

The Order of the Eight Divisions as regards the Annual Rate represented by the Number of Marriages Registered during the First Quarter of the Years 1865, 1866, and 1867, is shown in the following Statement.

Divisions.	Ratio, Quarter ending		
	31st March, 1865.	31st March, 1866.	31st March, 1867.
I. South-Western.....	1 in 76	1 in 81	1 in 79
II. Western	" 88	" 83	" 77
III. South-Eastern	" 104	" 121	" 106
IV. North Midland.....	" 135	" 161	" 139
V. North-Western.....	" 142	" 130	" 120
VI. South Midland	" 143	" 162	" 128
VII. North-Eastern	" 161	" 152	" 159
VIII. Eastern	" 175	" 171	" 168

The Numerical Order of the Eight Divisions as regards the Annual Rate represented by the Number of Births Registered during the Second Quarter of 1865, 1866, and 1867, is shown in the following Statement.

Divisions.	Ratio, Quarter ending		
	30th June, 1865.	30th June, 1866.	30th June, 1867.
I. North-Eastern	1 in 32	1 in 32	1 in 31
II. South-Western.....	" 33	" 34	" 32
III. Eastern	" 37	" 37	" 37
IV. South-Eastern	" 37	" 37	" 37
V. North Midland.....	" 41	" 41	" 41
VI. North-Western.....	" 41	" 44	" 40
VII. South Midland.....	" 43	" 45	" 42
VIII. Western	" 44	" 42	" 40

The following Statement shows the Eight Divisions, Arranged according to the Annual Rate of Mortality afforded by the Number of Deaths Registered during the Second Quarter of 1865, 1866, and 1867.

Divisions.	Ratio, Quarter ending		
	30th June, 1865.	30th June, 1866.	30th June, 1867.
I. Eastern	1 in 50	1 in 46	1 in 48
II. North-Eastern	" 51	" 49	" 54
III. South-Eastern	" 53	" 52	" 52
IV. South-Western.....	" 62	" 64	" 59
V. South Midland	" 64	" 63	" 59
VI. North-Western.....	" 66	" 70	" 79
VII. North Midland.....	" 70	" 68	" 69
VIII. Western.....	" 77	" 78	" 79

Births, Deaths, and Marriages in each Division of Ireland.

Divisions.	Area in Statute Acres.	Population in 1861.	March Quarter, 1867.	June Quarter, 1867.	
			Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
I. North-Eastern	2,328,305	1,124,041	1,769	9,062	5,174
II. North-Western....	2,392,501	574,745	1,193	3,606	1,822
III. Eastern	1,993,016	829,569	1,232	5,603	4,333
IV. North Midland....	2,019,408	575,289	1,038	3,488	2,097
V. South Midland ...	2,361,709	515,272	1,008	3,102	2,176
VI. Western	4,088,459	822,878	2,689	5,142	2,589
VII. South-Eastern ...	1,826,172	500,957	1,185	4,419	2,423
VIII. South-Western ...	3,313,071	855,813	2,702	6,617	3,620
Total of Ireland...	20,322,641	5,798,967	12,816	40,039	24,234

No. IV.—GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

SUMMARY of MARRIAGES, *in the Quarter ended 31st March, 1867; and*
BIRTHS and DEATHS, *in the Quarter ended 30th June, 1867.*

COUNTRIES.	AREA in Statute Acres.	POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
		No.	No.	No.	No.
England and Wales	37,324,883	20,066,224	36,380	199,649	112,523
Scotland	19,639,377	3,062,294	5,332	30,393	17,464
Ireland	20,322,641	5,798,967	12,816	40,039	24,234
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND }	77,286,901	28,927,485	54,528	270,081	154,221

Trade of United Kingdom, 1867-66-65.—*Distribution of Exports from United Kingdom, according to the Declared Real Value of the Exports; and the Computed Real Value (Ex-duty) of Imports at Port of Entry, and therefore including Freight and Importer's Profit.*

Merchandise (<i>excluding Gold and Silver</i>), Imported from, and Exported to, the following Foreign Countries, &c. [000's omitted.]	First Three Months.					
	1867.		1866.		1865.	
	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to
I.—FOREIGN COUNTRIES :	£	£	£	£	£	£
Northern Europe; viz., Russia, Sweden, Norway, Denmark & Iceland, & Heligoland } Central Europe; viz., Prussia, Germany, the Hanse Towns, Holland, and Belgium } Western Europe; viz., France, Portugal (with Azores, Madeira, &c.), and Spain (with Gibraltar and Canaries) }	4,265,	552,	3,575,	475,	1,871,	312,
	5,414,	7,681,	6,170,	7,698,	4,952,	4,878,
	11,566,	4,699,	11,930,	3,870,	7,652,	3,767,
Southern Europe; viz., Italy, Austrian Empire, Greece, Ionian Islands, and Malta } Levant; viz., Turkey, with Wallachia and Moldavia, Syria and Palestine, and Egypt }	845,	1,893,	1,112,	2,145,	684,	2,071,
	6,335,	3,736,	5,468,	5,494,	6,785,	3,189,
Northern Africa; viz., Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria and Morocco }	50,	77,	96,	85,	51,	52,
Western Africa	208,	228,	188,	134,	223,	130,
Eastern Africa; with African Ports on Red Sea, Aden, Arabia, Persia, Bourbon, and Kooria Moorla Islands..... }	3,	38,	18,	36,	42,	15,
Indian Seas, Siam, Sumatra, Java, Philippines; other Islands }	39,	626,	106,	462,	508,	481,
South Sea Islands	—	—	—	7,	8,	—
China, including Hong Kong	3,081,	1,629,	2,433,	2,263,	2,485,	1,447,
United States of America	8,906,	7,449,	12,242,	9,655,	1,926,	3,277,
Mexico and Central America	324,	205,	210,	309,	995,	601,
Foreign West Indies and Hayti	721,	652,	297,	725,	680,	913,
South America (Northern), New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador } " (Pacific), Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and Patagonia }	215,	566,	440,	797,	252,	713,
	1,140,	983,	1,068,	509,	1,108,	828,
" (Atlantic) Brazil, Uruguay, and Buenos Ayres	1,533,	2,471,	1,948,	2,839,	1,736,	1,982,
Whale Fisheries; Grnlnd., Davis' Straits, Southn. Whale Fishery, & Falkland Islands }	—	—	2,	3,	—	—
Total—Foreign Countries	44,645,	33,485,	47,303,	37,506,	31,958,	24,656,
II.—BRITISH POSSESSIONS :						
British India, Ceylon, and Singapore	2,656,	4,903,	5,575,	4,152,	4,549,	5,548,
Austral. Cols.—New South Wales and Victoria	1,488,	1,064,	1,251,	1,970,	892,	1,923,
" " So. Aus., W. Aus., Tasm., and N. Zealand	229,	570,	246,	884,	223,	839,
British North America	385,	746,	510,	1,033,	492,	628,
" W. Indies with Btsh. Guiana & Honduras	687,	638,	900,	695,	1,712,	870,
Cape and Natal	436,	596,	377,	295,	383,	661,
Br. W. Co. of Af., Ascension and St. Helena	92,	162,	109,	161,	122,	102,
Mauritius	304,	116,	430,	155,	360,	192,
Channel Islands	82,	101,	118,	140,	95,	217,
Total—British Possessions	6,359,	8,896,	9,516,	9,485,	8,828,	10,980,
General Total£	51,004,	42,381,	56,819,	46,991,	40,786,	35,636,

IMPORTS. — (United Kingdom.) — **First Five Months** (*January — May*),
1867-66-65-64-63.—*Computed Real Value (Ex-duty), at Port of Entry (and therefore including Freight and Importer's Profit), of Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise Imported into the United Kingdom.*

(First Five Months.) [000's omitted.] FOREIGN ARTICLES IMPORTED.		1867.	1866.	1865.	1864.	1863.
		£	£	£	£	£
RAW MATLS.— <i>Textile.</i>	Cotton Wool	25,884,	38,398,	17,183,	29,341,	13,924,
	Wool (Sheep's) ..	6,302,	6,073,	4,704,	4,211,	3,686,
	Silk	6,537,	6,232,	5,734,	4,679,	6,620,
	Flax	1,124,	1,050,	876,	1,936,	1,050,
	Hemp	798,	1,064,	560,	1,579,	874,
	Indigo	975,	720,	602,	586,	767,
		41,620,	53,537,	29,659,	42,332,	26,921,
„ „ <i>Various.</i>	Hides	713,	952,	693,	694,	804,
	Oils	1,401,	1,289,	1,105,	911,	1,377,
	Metals	1,333,	1,552,	1,441,	1,626,	1,378,
	Tallow	243,	532,	394,	382,	392,
	Timber.....	993,	1,496,	1,572,	1,832,	1,858,
		4,683,	5,821,	5,205,	5,445,	5,809,
„ „ <i>Agricul.</i>	Guano	429,	623,	865,	453,	1,167,
	Seeds	936,	1,058,	1,162,	1,485,	1,085,
		1,365,	1,681,	2,027,	1,938,	2,252,
TROPICAL &c., PRODUCE.	Tea	4,315,	4,359,	4,008,	4,272,	4,907,
	Coffee	1,183,	991,	1,153,	1,079,	1,200,
	Sugar & Molasses	5,504,	4,747,	3,612,	4,829,	5,066,
	Tobacco	588,	876,	1,003,	910,	650,
	Rice	156,	209,	201,	273,	416,
	Fruits	162,	62,	181,	105,	105,
	Wines	2,088,	2,063,	1,494,	2,318,	1,816,
	Spirits	740,	844,	628,	1,018,	823,
		14,736,	14,151,	12,280,	14,804,	14,983,
FOOD	Grain and Meal.	15,375,	10,891,	5,704,	7,241,	10,116,
	Provisions	3,296,	3,627,	3,473,	3,363,	3,011,
		18,671,	14,518,	9,177,	10,604,	13,127,
Remainder of Enumerated Articles		2,366,	2,321,	1,707,	1,989,	1,702,
TOTAL ENUMERATED IMPORTS		83,441,	92,029,	60,005,	77,112,	64,794,
Add for UNENUMERATED IMPORTS (say)		20,860,	23,007,	15,014,	19,278,	16,198,
TOTAL IMPORTS		104,301,	115,036,	75,069,	96,390,	80,992,

EXPORTS. — (United Kingdom.) — First Six Months (*January — June*),
 1867-66-65-64-63.—*Declared Real Value, at Port of Shipment, of Articles of*
BRITISH and IRISH Produce and Manufactures Exported from United Kingdom.

(First Six Months.) [000's omitted.] BRITISH PRODUCE, &C., EXPORTED.		1867.	1866.	1865.	1864.	1863.
		£	£	£	£	£
MANFRS.— <i>Textile.</i> Cotton Manufactures..		27,501,	30,418,	21,630,	22,401,	15,542,
„ Yarn		7,131,	6,681,	3,959,	4,598,	2,967,
Woollen Manufactures		9,878,	10,534,	8,034,	9,108,	6,084,
„ Yarn		2,775,	2,181,	2,436,	2,576,	2,213,
Silk Manufactures.....		728,	869,	901,	1,029,	874,
„ Yarn		100,	115,	128,	129,	157,
Linen Manufactures ...		3,797,	4,918,	4,056,	4,085,	2,903,
„ Yarn		1,334,	1,165,	1,069,	1,480,	1,114,
		53,244,	56,881,	42,213,	45,406,	31,854,
„ <i>Sewed.</i> Apparel		1,027,	1,347,	1,171,	1,136,	1,172,
Haberdy. and Mllnry.		2,196,	2,803,	2,133,	2,414,	1,817,
		3,223,	4,150,	3,304,	3,550,	2,989,
METALS Hardware		1,896,	2,131,	1,989,	1,958,	1,618,
Machinery		2,376,	2,049,	2,593,	2,060,	1,884,
Iron		6,964,	7,498,	5,829,	6,997,	5,917,
Copper and Brass.....		1,441,	1,427,	1,614,	1,543,	1,963,
Lead and Tin		1,621,	1,632,	1,282,	1,567,	1,377,
Coals and Culm		2,463,	2,416,	2,055,	1,940,	1,726,
		16,761,	17,153,	15,362,	16,065,	14,485,
Ceramic Manufcts. Earthenware and Glass		1,236,	1,198,	1,055,	1,042,	951,
Indigenous Mnfrs. Beer and Ale.....		1,111,	1,159,	1,210,	940,	887,
Butter		131,	178,	134,	148,	232,
Cheese		60,	85,	47,	78,	67,
Candles		93,	110,	46,	63,	97,
Salt		206,	199,	97,	144,	142,
Spirits		69,	78,	129,	295,	205,
Soda		793,	760,	514,	460,	434,
		2,463,	2,569,	2,177,	2,128,	2,064,
Various Manufcts. Books, Printed		269,	276,	213,	211,	198,
Furniture		89,	117,	148,	105,	134,
Leather Manufactures		846,	940,	1,197,	1,088,	1,044,
Soap		143,	104,	85,	109,	120,
Plate and Watches ...		197,	203,	195,	196,	224,
Stationery		182,	178,	188,	160,	143,
		1,726,	1,818,	2,026,	1,869,	1,863,
Remainder of Enumerated Articles		4,861,	4,886,	4,449,	4,374,	3,798,
Unenumerated Articles.....		4,099,	4,202,	3,542,	3,613,	4,010,
		87,612,	92,857,	74,128,	78,047,	62,014,
TOTAL EXPORTS.....						

SHIPPING.—FOREIGN TRADE.—(United Kingdom.)—First Six Months (*January—June*), 1867-66-65-64.—*Vessels Entered and Cleared with Cargoes, including repeated Voyages, but excluding Government Transports.*

(First Six Months.) ENTERED :—	1867.			1866.		1865.		1864.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Average Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage. (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)
<i>Vessels belonging to—</i>	No.	Tons.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Russia	138	53,	384	167	58,	151	55,	255	89,
Sweden	457	81,	177	437	81,	385	64,	522	82,
Norway	1,580	350,	222	1,571	344,	1,420	303,	1,481	297,
Denmark.....	1,155	126,	109	988	103,	942	95,	1,332	126,
Prussia and Ger. Sts....	1,632	417,	255	1,798	443,	1,508	345,	800	216,
Holland and Belgium....	871	112,	123	1,065	141,	958	128,	892	121,
France	1,227	113,	92	1,643	155,	1,401	123,	1,217	98,
Spain and Portugal	242	79,	326	188	59,	218	69,	215	61,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	306	97,	317	531	164,	411	119,	226	66,
United States	202	213,	1,054	230	233,	117	127,	202	232,
All other States	6	3,	500	5	2,	15	6,	7	3,
United Kingdm. & } Depds.....	7,816 11,352	1,644, 3,969,	209 349	8,623 12,149	1,783, 4,111,	7,526 10,514	1,434, 3,260,	7,149 10,552	1,391, 3,255,
<i>Totals Entered....</i>	19,168	5,613,	293	20,772	5,894,	18,044	4,694,	17,701	4,646,
CLEARED :—									
Russia	175	57,	326	200	77,	196	77,	229	95,
Sweden	427	82,	192	436	85,	348	62,	470	77,
Norway	1,006	327,	325	1,004	205,	933	196,	1,103	213,
Denmark.....	1,284	143,	112	935	101,	1,013	106,	1,347	129,
Prussia and Ger. Sts....	2,342	477,	204	2,297	496,	2,007	429,	1,150	275,
Holland and Belgium....	915	128,	139	1,033	170,	1,081	164,	817	126,
France.....	2,115	153,	73	2,093	227,	2,009	204,	2,286	226,
Spain and Portugal	215	81,	376	170	53,	192	61,	196	58,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	392	122,	311	602	200,	538	108,	418	135,
United States	259	257,	992	283	283,	158	156,	213	236,
All other States	8	2,	250	10	5,	13	4,	14	6,
United Kingdm. & } Depds.....	9,138 14,510	1,830, 4,419,	203 305	9,063 14,672	1,902, 4,875,	8,488 13,734	1,639, 4,228,	8,243 14,068	1,576, 4,214,
<i>Totals Cleared....</i>	23,648	6,249,	264	23,735	6,777,	22,222	5,867,	22,311	5,790,

GOLD AND SILVER BULLION AND SPECIE. — IMPORTED AND EXPORTED. — (United Kingdom.) — *Computed Real Value for the First Six Months (January—June), 1867-66-65.*

[000's omitted.]

(First Six Months.)	1867.		1866.		1865.	
	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.
Imported from:—	£	£	£	£	£	£
Australia	2,287,	—	2,617,	1,	1,289,	—
So. Amca. and W. } Indies	857,	2,234,	855,	1,598,	1,567,	2,855,
United States and } Cal.	2,357,	612,	6,954,	537,	2,882,	41,
	5,501,	2,846,	10,426,	2,136,	5,738,	2,896,
France	337,	502,	1,071,	1,084,	266,	425,
Hanse Towns, Holl. } & Belg.	44,	186,	287,	861,	110,	35,
Prtgl., Spain, and } Gbrltr.	53,	58,	275,	55,	555,	34,
Mlta., Trky., and } Egypt	32,	15,	169,	4,	261,	—
China	—	—	—	—	—	—
West Coast of Africa	76,	2,	55,	8,	53,	11,
All other Countries....	294,	28,	145,	27,	208,	31,
<i>Totals Imported....</i>	6,337,	3,637,	12,428,	4,175,	7,191,	3,432,
Exported to:—						
France	2,220,	523,	5,428,	525,	1,848,	336,
Hanse Towns, Holl. } & Belg.	219,	1,941,	857,	538,	229,	1,512,
Prtgl., Spain, and } Gbrltr.	347,	—	63,	105,	781,	—
	2,786,	2,464,	6,348,	1,168,	2,858,	1,848,
Ind. and China (via } Egypt)	16,	446,	320,	2,433,	165,	1,024,
Danish West Indies	—	—	—	—	—	—
United States	49,	—	83,	—	18,	—
South Africa	—	—	5,	—	—	—
Mauritius	—	—	—	—	—	—
Brazil	18,	46,	338,	53,	264,	54,
All other Countries....	351,	79,	262,	113,	225,	40,
<i>Totals Exported....</i>	3,220,	3,035,	7,356,	3,767,	3,530,	2,966,
Excess of Imports	3,117,	602,	5,072,	408,	3,661,	466,
„ Exports	—	—	—	—	—	—

REVENUE.—(UNITED KINGDOM.)—30TH JUNE, 1867-66-65-64.

Net Produce in YEARS and QUARTERS ended 30th JUNE, 1867-66-65-64.

[000's omitted.]

QUARTERS, ended 30th June.	1867.	1866.	1867.		Corresponding Quarters.	
			Less.	More.	1865.	1864.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Customs	5,499,	5,271,	—	228,	5,178,	5,446,
Excise	5,028,	5,144,	116,	—	4,865,	4,864,
Stamps	2,547,	2,483,	—	64,	2,490,	2,539,
Taxes	1,506,	1,478,	—	28,	1,407,	1,432,
Post Office	1,150,	1,070,	—	80,	970,	960,
Property Tax	15,730,	15,446,	116,	400,	14,910,	15,241,
	1,577,	1,597,	20,	—	2,210,	2,469,
Crown Lands	17,307,	17,043,	—	400,	17,120,	17,710,
	72,	71,	—	1,	70,	69,
Miscellaneous	402,	350,	—	53,	359,	495,
<i>Totals</i>	17,781,	17,464,	136,	454,	17,549,	18,274,
			NET INCR. £318,261			

YEARS, ended 30th June.	1867.	1866.	1867.		Corresponding Years.	
			Less.	More.	1865.	1864.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Customs	22,531,	21,369,	—	1,162	22,304,	22,821,
Excise	20,554,	20,067,	—	487,	19,559,	18,666,
Stamps	9,484,	9,553,	69,	—	9,481,	9,462,
Taxes	3,496,	3,421,	—	75,	3,267,	3,260,
Post Office	4,550,	4,350,	—	200,	4,110,	3,820,
Property Tax	60,615,	58,760,	69,	1,924,	58,721,	58,029,
	5,680,	5,777,	97,	—	7,699,	8,635,
Crown Lands	66,295,	64,537,	166,	1,924,	66,420,	66,664,
	331,	321,	—	10,	311,	306,
Miscellaneous	3,127,	2,868,	—	258,	2,858,	3,023,
<i>Totals</i>	69,753,	67,726,	166,	2,192,	69,589,	69,993,
			NET INCR. £2,026,393			

REVENUE.—UNITED KINGDOM.—QUARTER ENDED 30TH JUNE, 1867:—

An Account showing the REVENUE and other RECEIPTS of the QUARTER ended 30th June, 1867; the APPLICATION of the same, and the Charge of the Consolidated Fund for the said Quarter, together with the Surplus or Deficiency upon such Charge.

Received:—

Surplus Balance beyond the Charge of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> for the Quarter ended 31st March, 1867, viz.:—	£
Great Britain	—
Ireland	£824,606
	824,606
Income received, as shown in Account I	17,781,925
Amount received in repayment of Advances for Public Works, &c.	526,339
Ditto, for New Courts of Justice.....	120,000
	£19,252 870
Balance, being the Deficiency on 30th June, 1867, upon the charge of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> in Great Britain, to meet the Dividends and other charges payable in the Quarter to 30th September, 1867 ...	1,092,916
	£20,345,786

Paid:—

Deficiency of the Income of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> in Great Britain in the Quarter to 31st March, 1867, for the Charge of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> in Great Britain for that Quarter (as shown in preceding account)	£676,863	£
Less amount of charge for the said Quarter cancelled	100	
	676,763	
Amount applied out of the Income to <i>Supply Services</i>	10,402,665	
„ advanced for New Courts of Justice	65,000	
Charge of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> for the Quarter ended 30th June, 1867, viz.:—		
Interest of the Permanent Debt	£6,098,327	
Terminable Debt	616,581	
Principal of Exchequer Bills	43,500	
Interest of „ „	68,930	
„ Advances on Account of Deficiency ...	—	
The Civil List	101,774	
Other Charges on <i>Consolidated Fund</i>	427,752	
Advances for Public Works, &c.	382,167	
Sinking Fund	551,043	
	8,290,074	
<i>Surplus Balance</i> in Ireland beyond the Charge of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> in Ireland for the Quarter ended 30th June, 1867	911,284	
	£20,345,786	

BRITISH CORN.—*Gazette Average Prices (ENGLAND AND WALES),
Second Quarter of 1867.*

[This Table is communicated by the Statistical and Corn Department, Board of Trade.]

Weeks ended on a Saturday, 1867.		Weekly Average. (Per Impl. Quarter.)					
		Wheat.		Barley.		Oats.	
		s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
April	6	61	2	39	7	23	9
"	13	60	9	39	9	24	5
"	20	61	4	39	8	25	5
"	27	62	11	39	1	25	6
Average for April		61	6	39	6	24	9
May	4	63	10	39	9	25	3
"	11	64	9	38	11	25	10
"	18	64	11	38	11	27	—
"	25	65	3	37	10	26	2
Average for May		64	8	38	10	26	—
June	1	65	5	37	9	26	10
"	8	65	4	36	9	27	4
"	15	65	9	36	2	27	8
"	22	65	8	35	—	27	7
"	29	64	10	35	3	28	—
Average for June.....		65	4	36	2	27	5
Average for the quarter		63	11	38	—	26	2

RAILWAYS.—PRICES, April—June;—and TRAFFIC, January—June, 1867.

Total Capital Ex- pended Mlns. £	Railway.	For the (£100). Price on			Miles Open.		Total Traffic. First 26 Weeks. (000's omitted.)		Traffic pr. Mile pr. Wk. 26 Weeks.		Dividends per Cent. for Half Years.		
		1st June.	1st May.	1st April.	'67.	'66.	'67.	'66.	'67.	'66.	31 Dec., '66.	30 Jun. '65.	31 Dec. '65.
					No.	No.	£	£	£	£	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
55,6	Lond. & N. Westn.	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	114 $\frac{1}{2}$	116 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,326	1,295	3,009,	2,998,	100	101	67 6	60 —	72 6
49,1	Great Western	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	41	41 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,311	1,292	1,935,	1,946,	64	66	10 —	20 —	20 —
19,9	„ Northern...	116	112	116	441	422	934,	929,	90	90	80 —	50 —	87 —
8,1	„ Eastern	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	27 $\frac{7}{8}$	28	709	709	866,	877,	53	50	Nil	Nil	Nil
16,5	Brighton	61	58	75	335	314	541,	524,	80	75	40 —	40 —	65 —
19,7	South-Eastern	69	66	68 $\frac{1}{2}$	330	319	653,	613,	102	96	30 —	28 9	45 —
16,1	„ Western....	79	77	79	503	500	—	—	60	61	45 —	40 —	55 —
185,0		74 $\frac{1}{8}$	71	75	4,955	4,851	7,938,	7,887,	79	78	38 11	34 1	49 3
29,2	Midland	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{1}{2}$	113 $\frac{1}{4}$	695	677	1,323,	1,284,	85	80	62 6	60 —	70 —
22,2	Lancsh. and York.	130	122 $\frac{3}{4}$	124 $\frac{1}{2}$	403	403	1,194,	1,151,	127	124	67 6	67 6	62 6
15,3	Sheffield and Man.	49	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	48	246	246	525,	526,	92	97	30 —	20 —	35 —
38,5	North-Eastern	103 $\frac{1}{2}$	102	102	1,229	1,208	1,774,	1,760,	65	65	30 —	55 —	65 —
105,2		99	95 $\frac{3}{8}$	97	2,573	2,534	4,816,	4,721,	92	91	47 6	48 1	58 1
19,4	Caledonian	111	110	107	573	562	847,	847,	63	63	65 —	72 6	75 —
5,9	Gt. S. & Wn. Irlnd.	92	107	106	419	387	—	—	28	24	45 —	50 —	50 —
315,6	Gen. aver.	86	84 $\frac{1}{4}$	86 $\frac{1}{2}$	8,520	8,334	13,601,	13,455,	78	76	44 —	42 7	54 —

Consols.—Money Prices, 1st June, 95 to 96.—1st May, 91 to $\frac{1}{8}$.—1st April. 91 to $\frac{1}{8}$.

Exchequer Bills.—1st June, 21s. to 25s. pm.—1st May, 20s. to 25s. pm.—1st April, 14s. to 18s. pm.

BANK OF ENGLAND.—WEEKLY RETURN.

Pursuant to the Act 7th and 8th Victoria, c. 32 (1844), for Wednesday in each Week, during the SECOND QUARTER (April—June) of 1867.

[0,000's omitted.]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ISSUE DEPARTMENT.					COLLATERAL COLUMNS.	
Liabilities.	DATES.	Assets.			Notes in Hands of Public. (Col. 1 minus col. 16.)	Minimum Rates of Discount at Bank of England.
Notes Issued.	(Wednesdays.)	Government Debt.	Other Securities.	Gold Coin and Bullion.		
£	1867.	£	£	£	£	1867. Per ann. 7 Feb. 3 p. ct.
Mlms.		Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	
33,47	April 3	11,01	3,98	18,47	23,21	
33,18	" 10	11,01	3,98	18,17	23,23	
33,18	" 17	11,01	3,98	18,17	23,23	
33,22	" 24	11,01	3,98	18,23	23,12	
33,17	May 1	11,01	3,98	18,16	23,30	
32,96	" 8	11,01	3,98	17,96	23,14	
33,09	" 15	11,01	3,98	18,09	23,18	
33,53	" 22	11,01	3,98	18,53	22,77	
34,29	" 29	11,01	3,98	19,28	22,93	30 May 2½ "
34,81	June 5	11,01	3,98	19,81	23,18	
35,18	" 12	11,01	3,98	20,18	23,77	
35,71	" 19	11,01	3,98	20,71	22,70	
36,10	" 26	11,01	3,98	21,10	23,20	

BANKING DEPARTMENT.

8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Liabilities.					Assets.					Totals of Liabi- ties and Assets.
Capital and Rest.		Deposits.		Seven Day and other Bills.	DATES. (Wdnsdys.)	Securities.		Reserve.		
Capital.	Rest.	Public.	Private.			Government.	Other.	Notes.	Gold and Silver Coin.	
£	£	£	£	£	1867.	£	£	£	£	£
Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.		Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.
14,55	3,87	8,62	17,67	,44	April 3	13,11	20,75	10,26	1,03	45,15
14,55	3,12	5,71	19,04	,43	„ 10	12,83	18,96	9,95	1,12	42,86
14,55	3,12	5,71	19,04	,43	„ 17	12,83	18,96	9,95	1,12	42,86
14,55	3,13	6,34	17,88	,42	„ 24	12,87	18,25	10,10	1,11	42,34
14,55	3,12	7,05	17,79	,48	May 1	12,88	19,17	9,87	1,08	43,00
14,55	3,14	7,41	17,53	,46	„ 8	12,88	19,22	9,82	1,16	43,09
14,55	3,14	7,53	17,51	,46	„ 15	12,88	19,26	9,91	1,15	43,20
14,55	3,15	8,58	17,18	,43	„ 22	12,88	19,12	10,76	1,13	43,90
14,55	3,12	8,84	17,31	,43	„ 29	12,88	18,88	11,36	1,13	44,26
14,55	3,11	9,19	17,19	,48	June 5	12,88	18,87	11,63	1,15	44,53
14,55	3,12	9,80	17,17	,45	„ 12	12,88	18,65	12,41	1,15	44,10
14,55	3,12	10,50	16,99	,42	„ 19	12,88	18,52	13,01	1,17	45,59
14,55	3,12	11,10	17,85	,43	„ 26	12,88	20,10	12,90	1,18	47,07

CIRCULATION.—COUNTRY BANKS.

Average Amount of Promissory Notes in Circulation in ENGLAND and WALES on Saturday, in each Week during the SECOND QUARTER (April—June) of 1867; and in SCOTLAND and IRELAND, at the Three Dates, as under.

ENGLAND AND WALES.				SCOTLAND.				IRELAND.		
DATES.	Private Banks. (Fixed Issues, 4,03).	Joint Stock Banks. (Fixed Issues, 2,74).	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 6,77).	Three Weeks, ended	£5 and upwards.	Under £5.	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 2,75).	£5 and upwards.	Under £5.	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 6,35).
1867.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	1867.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.	£ Mlns.
April 6	2,81	2,44	5,25							
„ 13	2,84	2,46	5,31							
„ 20	2,83	2,43	5,26							
„ 27	2,81	2,40	5,21	April 27	1,64	2,72	4,36	2,96	2,90	5,86
May 4	2,82	2,41	5,23							
„ 11	2,79	2,40	5,20							
„ 18	2,78	2,38	5,16							
„ 25	2,74	2,27	5,01	May 25	1,86	2,96	4,82	3,03	2,70	5,73
June 1	2,69	2,27	4,96							
„ 8	2,68	2,26	4,94							
„ 15	2,65	2,24	4,89							
„ 22	2,62	2,23	4,86	June 22	1,80	2,98	4,78	2,82	2,54	5,36

FOREIGN EXCHANGES.—Quotations as under, LONDON on Paris, Hamburg and Calcutta;—and New York, Calcutta, Hong Kong and Sydney, on LONDON—with collateral cols.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
DATES.	Paris.				Hamburg.			New York.	Calcutta.		Hong Kong.	Sydney.	Standard Silver in bars in London.
	London on Paris.	Bullion as arbitrated.		Prem. or Dis. on Gold per mille.	London on Hambg.	Bullion as arbitrated.			India Council.	At Calcutta on London.			
		Agnst. Engd.	For Engd.			Agnst. Engd.	For Engd.						
3 m. d.				3 m. d.			60 d. s.	60 d. s.	6 m. d.	6 m. s.	30 d. s.	pr. oz.	
1867.		pr. ct.	pr. ct.			pr. ct.	pr. ct.	pr. ct.	d.	d.	d.	pr. ct.	d.
April 6 ..	25·40	—	—	par.	13·8 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	—	109	24	25	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	61 $\frac{1}{4}$
„ 20 ..	„	—	—	„	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	—	—	„ $\frac{1}{8}$	23 $\frac{5}{8}$	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	51	„	60 $\frac{3}{4}$
May 4 ..	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	—	„	9	—	—	„ $\frac{1}{2}$	„ $\frac{1}{2}$	24	52	„	„
„ 18 ..	40	„	—	„	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	—	„ $\frac{7}{8}$	„	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	„	„	„
June 1 ..	„	—	—	„	10	—	—	„	„ $\frac{1}{4}$	„	„ $\frac{1}{2}$	„	„ $\frac{2}{8}$
„ 15 ..	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	„	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	—	110	„	„	53 $\frac{1}{2}$	„	„ $\frac{1}{2}$

JOURNAL OF THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY,

DECEMBER, 1867.

OPENING ADDRESS of the PRESIDENT of SECTION F (ECONOMIC SCIENCE and STATISTICS), of the BRITISH ASSOCIATION for the ADVANCEMENT of SCIENCE, at the THIRTY-SEVENTH MEETING, at DUNDEE, September, 1867. By M. E. GRANT-DUFF, M.P.

It has been the custom to open the proceedings of this Section by an address, and it has been the custom that that address should be a brief one. I propose, with your permission, to follow both these good customs.

This department of the British Association differs from the others. They are occupied exclusively with the study of external nature. We are occupied, with external nature, as has been truly said, only in so far as it exerts an influence on the human mind. They treat of physical sciences. Our Section throws its roots, so to speak, deep down among the physical sciences, but is itself devoted to moral science. Looked at in another light, our pursuits form the debateable land between the men of thought and the men of action. In theory, of course, we are given up exclusively to the examination of things as they are—to *science*; but do we not continually stray over the border line, and wander into the consideration of things as they should be—into the domain of the *art* of legislation and government? Those who are familiar with the proceedings of this Section will not, I think, say no. And this intermediate character of our department accounts, I suppose, for the fact, that it is from time to time presided over by members of parliament who, votaries of practical politics, cannot pretend to be teachers of the sciences with which this Section is concerned; cannot even pretend to be fellow-labourers with some whom I see around me; but are content to be in this field their disciples and followers.

The British Association, founded in 1831, was one of the results of that great upheaval of the national mind of which the political change which makes the year 1832 so famous, was, perhaps, the most conspicuous symptom. The foundation of the Statistical Society, and of our own Section, both of which have, I trust, done

something to help on the forward movement of the time, came shortly after, and the latter of these events must have very nearly synchronised with the commencement of that remarkable reactionary movement which, taking its rise in the common-room of Oriel, has since so widely and variously influenced English life. An eminent living writer, might find in this fact, perhaps, another illustration of the operations of Systole and Diastole in human affairs.

Up to 1856, this Section was exclusively occupied with statistics. In that year, the centenary of the publication of Quesnay's "Maximes Générales," and eighty years after the appearance of Adam Smith's great work, the kindred subject of economic science was wisely added to our programme. Now, then, we are the Section of Economic Science and Statistics. What do these terms mean? and with what sort of subjects will chance visitors who stray into these regions from more popular Sections find us dealing during the next few days? They will find us in our character of students of economic science, dealing with all the phenomena which attend upon the principles which regulate the production, the distribution, and the exchange of wealth. If they are quite unfamiliar with our inquiries, they may come prejudiced against us, as cold, and hard, and selfish. We deserve, gentlemen, no such character. The considerations to which we call attention, the laws which we point out, must be taken account of by the most humane and by the most imaginative, if their attempts at world-bettering are not to shiver against the realities of life. All human society, as has been well observed, "rests on a material foundation, and beneath "all systems of government and all schemes of public morality "there lies the science of the wealth of nations." The laws which we enunciate are no more, and no less hard and imperative than any of the laws with which other sciences have to do. "What," asked Mr. Mill, in the House of Commons last year, "is more "unfeeling than the attraction of gravitation?" If, however, gentlemen, we claim for economic science a very high place, we do not exaggerate its importance. No wise economist ever pretended to explain more than a very limited number of the complicated problems of society and of life. No wise economist ever laid himself open to the denunciations levelled by M. Quinet in his recent brilliant work on the French Revolution, against those who fondly fancy that they can account on economical principles alone, for that great moral and political earthquake. There surely never was a time when it was more plainly necessary to popularise this science. We are told by alarmists that one of the results of reform will be, that many matters which were considered settled will be reopened; that protection will again raise her head; and that the ghosts of

old fallacies will come back to gibber in the House of Commons. I am one of those who think such fears wildly exaggerated; but surely the mere possibility of our people lapsing into heresies such as those which have seduced men of our race in America and Australia, should warn us to diffuse far and wide the broad results of economic science. It is to be feared that even in circles where we should expect better things, there is a very considerable misconception about the real teaching of economists. Who can forget the opposition that was excited by Mr. Cobden's negotiations in France? As if, forsooth, he of all men was going to be false to the principles by the advocacy of which he had put himself in the first rank of contemporary statesmen.

Is it surprising that there should be so much hesitation about the acceptance, I do not say of the mere fact of free trade, but of some of its consequences? Count up the schools in which an attempt is made at going even a glimpse into economic science. How many men leave the great English universities with any knowledge of it? Our Scotch universities do little for this pre-eminently Scotch science, and I do not think I am wrong in believing that no lectures on political economy are delivered even in the most laborious and distinguished of Oxford colleges—the college of Adam Smith.

Of the two economical questions to which your president alluded last year, as to those which, for the moment, were chiefly occupying the minds of men—the question of our coal supply, and the state of money market—the first will no doubt slumber till the report of the Royal Commission is given to the world. The other still attracts attention, but the “wheel has come full circle,” the periodical reaction has set in, and the vast pile of gold mounts daily higher, waiting for the spirit of confidence to return. Another economical question has, however, come in these last few months into increased and painful prominence. I allude, of course, to the question of trades unions to the relations of capital and labour. Many eminent men have been declaring that England is falling behind other nations in the industrial race, and that a better and more extended technical education has become a necessity. All attempts, however, to give a good technical education will break down if we do not imitate Switzerland and Germany in creating a really good system of elementary and middle class education. That is the soil in which technical education must grow, and at present that soil is woefully thin in many places. Fortunately, however, the public mind is becoming familiarised with the idea of an educational rate, and if we have an educational rate to assist the poorest, why not a system of graded schools to which all classes may repair if they see fit, and through which a ladder may be built by which merit may climb to

the high places of society. How long will English farmers go on paying that the children of their labourers may be educated better than their own?

Amongst the most important measures of the late session, in which this Section may be supposed to have a peculiar interest, was the extension to all trades of the principle of the Factory Acts—those acts which in our own generation were so stoutly resisted in the name of political economy, but which enlightened theory approves and experience has justified. The comparative ease with which they passed was creditable to the Government, creditable to the interests affected, and above all creditable to Mr. Henry Bruce, the Vice-President of the Council in the late administration, whose abnegation of self in the untiring support which he gave to bills with which his own name will not be associated, was as remarkable as I fear it is rare amongst politicians of any party.

If it is easy to give a definition of our work as students of economic science, which, although, of course, liable to be pulled to pieces by critics, may be taken as fairly correct, how different is the case with our work as statisticians? Who can define statistics? “*Quicquid agunt homines*” in so far as it is susceptible of being recorded and expressed numerically. That definition might, perhaps, be accepted by some, but there would be many gainsayers. Two sets of men long disputed as to which of them was most entitled to the name of statisticians. There were those who considered statistics to be equivalent to what used to be called “*political arithmetic*.” There were those who, praying in aid the etymology of the word statistics, and recalling the history of the science, thought that they and they alone were entitled to represent themselves as the successors of the great Göttingen professors, who first gave a systematic form to this kind of inquiry. The victory has, for all practical purposes, remained with the first of these two bodies of disputants—that is to say, the science naturally tends to become more definite and precise—to restrict itself more and more within the circle of those facts which can be recorded and tabulated. The statistician has scarcely, perhaps, had so many hard words thrown at him as his cousin, the economist, but he has all along been coupled with that unpopular character in public disfavour. Those who know nothing else of Mr. Burke, know his sentence about “*sophists, economists, and calculators*.” I even remember seeing it quoted in a letter from an innkeeper who had been remonstrated with on account of an extortionate bill. The statistician, however, no less than the economist, can say something in his own justification. Have not vital statistics done much to diminish the uncertainty in providing for families which used so much to increase the anxieties of the trading and professional classes? Have not

sanitary statistics, even within the last few years, added very much to the length and comfort of both civil and military life? Have not judicial statistics done their part in leading the public to accept the doctrine at which the most enlightened criminalists had already arrived, by other paths, that crime is best repressed, not by severe, but by rapid and certain punishment? Are not educational statistics at this very moment convincing all intelligent persons in Great Britain that we must at length make "a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull altogether" to get at least a modicum of education conveyed to the whole people. And while I speak of educational statistics, it may not be amiss to recall one curious instance of the want of them, which was lately pressed on the attention of Parliament. A highly intelligent witness from Oxford, examined before the committee which lately sat to inquire into the educational system pursued at the two great English universities, admitted that there was not at this moment any official document in existence from which the public could arrive at an idea, even approximately correct, of the vast revenues of Oxford and her colleges—revenues which only required to be used in the spirit of her worthier sons, to make her incomparably the most efficient, as she is incomparably the wealthiest, university in the world. Surely it is monstrous that we can with the greatest ease find the revenue and the expenditure of the university of Berlin down to the last dollar, and are unable to arrive at even a tolerable guess as to the revenue and expenditure of a similar institution in our own country. The importance of military and naval statistics need not be urged. Would that the most striking result of inquiries into them could be brought home to all minds! Would that every one realised the fearful loss which the vast armaments now kept up are entailing upon Europe! Would that the people of this quarter of the globe would awake to the danger of being surpassed by the great nation on the other side of the Atlantic! An American politician came back last autumn from Prussia, declaring that it was impossible to walk ten yards in a Prussian town without meeting a soldier. An English politician came back at the same time from the United States, declaring that he had traversed the country from end to end without seeing even a single soldier. When will monarchs and cabinets and popular assemblies learn that old wisdom of William III, that that nation will hold the balance of power which, in proportion to its strength, has economised its material resources to the highest point, and acquired the highest degree of moral ascendancy by an honest and consistent allegiance to the laws of morality in its domestic policy and in its foreign relations? It would not be difficult to point out the obvious and palpable advantages that arise to the community from other branches of statistical inquiry; but in truth, there is no

need, for cavillers would be silent, if not convinced, were it not that our own friends sometimes give an occasion to the enemy. To attempt to draw from statistical facts inferences they will not bear—to resolve the whole play of social forces into a mere question of numbers and averages—to pretend that figures “govern the world,” instead of merely helping us to understand “how it is governed”—is simply to injure the cause which we profess to defend. Those who act in this way are almost as mischievous as those whose reckless abuse of statistical methods has given point to the sneer that nothing is so false as figures except facts—the Rigbys of political life, who manipulate their figures with a view not to arrive at truth, but to obtain a controversial success. There is no poorer triumph than such an one as this, for there is none easier; unless, indeed, it be the triumph attained by fifth-rate theologians when they quote isolated texts against each other, and each remains in the opinion of his followers, the master of the unhonoured and unprofitable field of strife. It is, however, vain to argue against anything, because it may be abused. Of course, a man who deals with statistics, in the spirit of the saying, “*Tant pis pour les faits*,” can make them prove anything; but surely no saying can be further from being an expression of the temper of any man who has a right to call himself a statistician. Perfect openness of mind, a determination to receive every fact with equal favour, a determination to restrain not only all the ordinary disturbing prejudices, but even that love of generalisation which is characteristic of the finest intellects; a spirit resigned to collect, one by one, the stones of the temple which a successor may build up—these are the marks of a true votary of this science.

I have said something about popularising economic science. Arguments not less strong, though different, might be alleged in favour of popularising statistics. It is in this department that we shall find the real value of those men whose habits of mind lead them to take what I may call the old view of the science, the view which found favour with Schlözer when he said—“Statistics are history in repose; history is statistics in motion.” The more the science, properly so called, withdraws itself up the heights of knowledge, the more necessary will it be to have messengers constantly passing to the plains below. It is satisfactory to see useful manuals of statistics being gradually multiplied and getting down into general circulation. The historical “*Almanach de Gotha*” has been the mother of a numerous progeny, amongst which, not the least useful, is the Belgian “*Annuaire*” of Scheler, and its younger sister in our own country, the “*Statesman’s Year Book*.” It is strange that, while France has in a kindred class of literature her excellent “*Annuaire des Deux Mondes*,” and Germany her “*Euro-*

“paischer Gelchichts-Kalender,” we have nothing more cosmopolitan than our very “Parochial Annual Register.” An idea, which was some years ago put forward in the “Saturday Review,” that it would be expedient to bring out a series of politico-historical companions to Mr. Murray’s “Handbooks,” has not yet been acted upon, but the realisation of so reasonable a project is surely only deferred.

One of the greatest attractions of this science is its international character. The first impulse of a statistician who has arrived at what appear to him satisfactory results with respect to a group of facts and figures in his own country, is to see how his conclusions are affected by similar groups of facts and figures in other countries. In so doing, he is necessarily brought into connection, not only with foreign knowledge, but with foreign men of activity and intelligence, and so becomes one more link in the chain that is binding into one great confederation the progressive nations of the globe. But I am forgetting that I promised to adhere to the good custom of being brief. During the next week, we shall listen to many papers upon most important subjects, both in our character of economists and statisticians. I trust we shall not only bring to all an open and unprejudiced mind, but likewise be mindful of the precept of the Pyrrhonists,—“Be sober, and remember to doubt.” Working in this spirit, we may perhaps square a stone or shape a rafter which some future “master of those who know” may use in building up a system of politics which may do as much honour to the nineteenth century after, as did that of Aristotle to the fourth century before, the Christian era.

On PUBLIC INSTRUCTION in TURKEY.

By HYDE CLARKE, ESQ., F.S.S., Cotton Commissioner in Turkey.

[Read before the Statistical Society, 19th November, 1867.]

CONTENTS:

	PAGE		PAGE
I.—Mussulman Education	504	VII.—Protestant Schools	526
II.—The Government	512	VIII.—Foreign „	526
III.—Orthodox Schools	521	IX.—Conclusion	527
IV.—Armenian „	523	APPENDIX. Tables, &c., I to VII	529
V.—Catholic or Latin Schools	524		
VI.—Jewish Schools	525		

DURING my residence in Turkey my attention, as an old labourer in the cause and co-operator with Sir Thomas Wyse, was naturally drawn to educational matters. Public instruction in Turkey has this of interest, that it deals with some of the same circumstances that we find at home, and we have the opportunity of watching Government and denominational action.

There are, however, in Turkey peculiarities that we have not in these islands, and notably in respect to language. The diversity of language is great. The Turks are almost the only people who use one language. A rayah will use a special language in his own household, an archaic form of it for his literature, another for his trade, one for general intercourse, a particular language or character for his correspondence, and a dead language for his religious service. The Turkish is the language most widely spread, and the only one which can be considered as a common language; but it is unknown to large masses of the population in Europe and Syria. In Syria, Arabic is the language of speech and writing among the community generally; but commonly speaking a sect tries to separate itself, and it may be safely held that a particular language and character are used to conceal, and not to promote intercourse. A Jew in the interior uses Spanish in his trade, which is not understood by Turkish or Greek neighbours; he employs Turkish in his general intercourse, but when communicating with a Jewish correspondent, he writes Spanish in the Hebrew or cursive character, and this is beyond ken. The Armenian uses Turko-Armenian in his household. This is a mystery of mysteries to the outside world. His child learns modern literary Armenian at school, and the whole family hear dead Armenian at church. Turkish is his general outside language, but he accommodates his Greek neighbours and customers by speaking bad Greek. His newspaper is Turkish, printed in Armenian characters, and his correspondence is Turkish, written in the newly-invented Armenian running hand,

to simulate English handwriting; when he uses Armenian with his family and natives, he is guarded by a circle of magic mystery; but even when he uses Turkish in a newspaper or a letter, it is under such conditions that the Turk cannot participate with him.

Each nationality will maintain its schools for making its own literary language, commonly differing from the dialect of the people, and will employ its own diverse character in printing and another for handwriting.

Besides this, each sect will use its own sectarian system, so though you have Bulgarians—Mussulmans, and Christians—using the same language, you cannot educate them together; and where they are of the same sect, as Bulgarians and Greeks, then you cannot have a common school, as they have neither the same language nor the same alphabets.

The best account, I believe, of public instruction in Turkey, is in the work of M. Heuschling, the Belgian statistician, written in 1859 and published in 1860.

The figures there given are very few, and, from no fault of M. Heuschling, erroneous. Those given by me from official sources are likewise on the face of them erroneous. Figures are not always facts; nor, on the other hand, can facts always be represented by figures. The domain of statistics is not, however, limited to the integers of figures, it has higher prerogatives—that of dealing with the relative volume of facts; and it has a prerogative of criticising inaccurate facts and figures, and obtaining an approximation to truth, or relative truth where absolute truth cannot be ensured. The figures here used, such as they are, admit of discussion; they show us our present knowledge of the subject, lay bare our deficiencies, and make a foundation for other and better compilations, until comparative accuracy be obtained.

Public instruction in Turkey was, till 1846, left to the action of religious communities and corporations, free from the supervision or interference of the State. Such is still the main basis, and the action of the State, like that of the Committee of Privy Council in its early stages, is strictly subordinate and auxiliary.

Thus public instruction in Turkey may be conveniently treated of under these heads:—

- I. Mussulman Establishments.
- II. Government „
- III. Orthodox, Bulgarian, and Greek Establishments.
- IV. Armenian Establishments.
- V. Catholic „
- VI. Jewish „
- VII. Protestant „
- VIII. Foreign „

In the view here taken Egypt is not included, nor the Danubian principalities and Servia.

I.—*Mussulman Education.*

This rests on the old institutions of the country. It is that most widely distributed, and it is upon it the newer Ministry of Public Instruction is chiefly operating.

It may be considered under two heads, superior instruction and elementary instruction.

Superior instruction consists of a minute course of training in theology and law, in colleges under professors and tutors, and by self instruction.

It may be assimilated to the scholastic or university training of the middle ages. Its only elements of liberality are the discipline of study and the necessary acquisition of the Turkish language as a literary and polished medium of communication by a grammatical study of the Arabic and Turkish languages. It may be attended with a knowledge of Turkish, Arabic, and Persian literature and history, but not necessarily. On the contrary, its main teaching is that of the theological and legal commentators; and among the lower classes of students this is unredeemed by more extensive or liberal studies.

Each large city, in which wherever in Europe there would be a collegiate church or churches, has attached to its great mosque or mosques a medresseh or college. In Adrianople and Bagdad there are forty or fifty. This is commonly a square building, with separate rooms or cells for the professors and students. These have endowments, formerly liberal, but by the change in the value of money, they are in the position that Rochester Grammar School and some other cathedral endowments lately were. Formerly these establishments flourished, but now most commonly they are to be found out of repair, and untenanted by professors or students, except at Constantinople. They are generally on the verge of extinction. At Constantinople there are 300 colleges, and a vast body of students; and these latter are chiefly maintained by doles from the imaret, establishments of the nature of soup kitchens, and which are the union houses of the east; furnishing, in Constantinople, food daily for 8,000 persons.

The Government does not step in to avert the decline of the colleges. These are connected with the general questions of ecclesiastical endowments, now under the management of the ulema, and into which the Government has driven the thin edge of the wedge in the shape of an ecclesiastical commissioner (Evkat Nazari). The ulema treat these endowments as the sacred pro-

perty of religion, and it does not suit the Government to engage in untimely warfare with bitter opponents; but it leaves the ecclesiastical endowments to suffer by bad tenures and unfavourable management, offering on its own behalf, if entrusted with the management, to ensure a more liberal income to the recipiendaries, as against the persons profiting by holding the management. To the public at large it offers ecclesiastical tenures enfranchisement. Thus opinion is following its bent, and the Government will, at an early time, be able to accomplish its wishes without exciting a dangerous opposition.

In the meanwhile, its chief opponents are being gradually stripped of their rich emoluments by the action of events; and the power of this corporation is materially diminished. The college, the barrack of active and fanatical enemies, is thinned, while alongside, the *rushdiyeh* invites the upper and middle class of Mussulman boys, giving them an education superior to that of the elementary schools, and opening for them a career in the public service in preference to that of the *ulema*.

The *ulema*, trained in one class of studies, diverge into two different careers,—the service of the mosques and the administration of the law. A separate priesthood does not exist, as each Mussulman can perform all the duties of his religion, like the Jews; but there are, in both communities, officers and assistants in the management of ecclesiastical buildings and the conduct of public worship. There are leaders in prayers, and preachers of sermons, and so in descent to the common servants. In Turkey the emoluments of these offices, high or low, are commonly small; and the holders of them pursue other occupations.

The administration of the law, however, still affords great rewards. Promotion in it conforms, to some extent, to our own practice. Those who accept office at an early age, receive an inferior office and no promotion; so in the second step; while it is only the man of long standing who steps at once into the highest positions. The barrister who takes the clerkship of a court, the stipendiary magistrate, the county court judge, and the judge of the supreme courts, typify the various stages of Turkish progress. There is, however, this difference, that in Turkey there is no practice as advocates, there is no litigious advocacy or procuratorship. It is, therefore, after twenty years study that the *mufti* steps into the highest positions. The appointments are on the old system here; the judge is paid by regulated fees, and he names his subordinates and officers, in some cases receiving fees on the nomination or selling the patent, as the usage may be. The rewards of these functionaries are still very high, but the Government is gradually diminishing their power, by setting up concurrent mixed tribunals,

which have already assumed much of the criminal and commercial jurisdiction.

Another measure, which breaks up the corporation and destroys the independence of its members, is their nomination to places under Government. They are appointed as legal advisers to each Government department, and in various capacities. This career has proved more brilliant than that of the ulema. A most distinguished man, Ahmed Jevdet Pasha, historiographer of the empire, stepped from the nominal rank of chief justice to the viceroyalty of Aleppo. Thus the ulema are made contributory to the Government system.

A college in Constantinople has attached to it a body of professors and a library. These libraries, open to the public, consist chiefly of theological and law books, but some are rich in Oriental literature. They contain no European books, and none on what is called useful knowledge.

Part of the students in Constantinople are the sons of the ulema, others are the poor scholars from the country already spoken of.

The Government restrains itself from meddling with these colleges; it trusts to influence from without. The ulema are particularly prejudiced against western and useful knowledge; but it was noticed, and I saw myself, when the public courses of lectures were going on at the Dar ul Funoon, that a large proportion of the audience consisted of the white-turbaned ulema. In fact the consequences of culture will make themselves felt against prejudices. His Excellency Kemal Effendi introduced me to a gentleman, a member of his staff, under peculiar circumstances. This gentleman was dressed as a mollah, and he spoke French, which he had acquired in a short time. The minister told me, that knowing the ulema had a particular prejudice against the study of mathematics, although they profess to teach geometry, he had caused this gentleman to assume the turban and attend one of the leading colleges, beginning discussions on mathematical subjects, and afterwards lectures. This was attended with very successful results.

The members of the ulema must be considered as cultivated and educated men, according to their training, as much so as our own clergy. I have commonly found them votaries of learning and lovers of books. Some have engaged in studies beyond their domain, but they are so hedged in by the sanctity of divine and the dignity of classical learning, that it is hard for a member of the body to sully himself by meaner pursuits.

From the lower members of the students of the country colleges, are obtained the village schoolmasters. Where there is a mosque or place of worship, however small, and sometimes where there is

not, we find the school and the hojah. The hojah is a person of dignity. He is the schoolmaster of boys and girls, leader at prayers and funerals, the legal adviser, conveyancer, draftsman of purchases, leases, agreements, and marriage contracts, the clerk to the community, secretary to the squire, if there be one, his legal assessor, general writer and reader of all letters for men or women in the village, deputy or secretary in all communications, interviews, and correspondence with the higher authorities. To these pursuits, he may add medicine, in the shape of religious charms. In a Turkish or even non-Turkish population, the hojah is allowed the monopoly of learning.

The schools are generally small, and containing few scholars, as most commonly each schoolmaster has a separate school. In the country the building is of wood, in the cities of stone. A common shape is a square room of stone of 12 ft. by 12 ft., 16 ft. by 16 ft., or 20 ft. by 20 ft., over a public drinking fountain. The schools are open to boys and girls, and by law all children are compelled to go to school at 6 years old. In practice the girls of the lower classes are not sent to school, nor the boys either, as education is not valued by the parents. The girls of the professional class, or ulema, almost invariably go to school, and those of the better classes, unless they have a governess at home. The instruction is the same for girls as for boys, but it is not always carried so far.

The average number of children in the Constantinople schools is larger. It is as follows:—

Boys	35
Girls	24
	—
	59
	—

Twenty is a common number in a country school, but in the Arab towns schools are to be found at each corner of the streets.

The proportion of girls to boys in Constantinople is very large, about 5 to 7. So far as I have seen the proportion in most other Turkish cities (not Arab), would not be 2 to 7.

The children go at an early age, 5 or 6, and remain to 12 or 14, where the object is to acquire instruction; but some children are only sent for form, to learn their prayers, or to be taken care of, and are soon removed for their own pleasure, or for the purposes of the parents. No child is excluded by poverty, as it is an holy duty to minister to the poor. The fees are small, and optional in the country; but in what may be called a middle class school, in a city with a fashionable schoolmaster, they will range higher. The business of a schoolmaster gives more honour than wealth.

The school is a strict introduction to the world, and closely

connected with the pursuits of life. The child learns the periodical prayers, and all the exercises of religion. Reading and writing are taught together in the character common to the Turkish, the Arabic, and the Persian; and in those formulas of prayer and of credence, which are universal throughout the Mussulman world. The child learns by heart, by reading and writing, the shorter and at length the longer passages of the Koran, which give exemplifications of faith and law. As these are in a language foreign to the Turkish child, they must be expounded, and the framework of public doctrine and social practice is explained. The moral of duty between man and man in all relations of society must be made known and exemplified, and even salutations and modes of behaviour. A primer and a Koran afford the necessary apparatus.

This is the general Mussulman basis, and to this the whole instruction of many children is limited.

A stage further, and which may be acquired from every hojah, is instruction in applying this knowledge to Turkish. The pupil is already familiar with what may be termed the printed character, and the general system of reading and writing. A book called the "Insha," written or lithographed, is the common manual. This contains all kinds of letters, petitions, documents, and accounts in the reka, or ordinary written character, and is sometimes supplemented by specimens of courthand.

This course not only teaches Turkish orthography, which is simple and unsettled, but the art of correspondence, and the transaction of business, under a man who is himself a practitioner. This is generally accompanied by instruction in arithmetic, and sometimes in book-keeping. A very good practical education for the purposes of Turkish life, can be obtained from the country hojah, which may extend to Arabic, a very useful language.

There is no geography, no history.

Considering how well adapted this course of teaching is to the requirements and sympathies of Mussulman life, and how its masters are supported by the endowments and contributions of the population, it will be seen that it is scarcely possible for the Government to interfere with it, until supported by public opinion, which is now adverse.

The Government action is limited in a direct shape chiefly to the supply of cheap school books of the kinds approved in the schools, and of improved books. To the use of these latter, there is a general opposition, as they are considered to emanate from an unorthodox source. The Government does, however, get out books on arithmetic, geography, Turkish history, &c., but particularly vocabularies and dialogues in Turkish, Arabic, and Persian.

Its indirect action upon the public at large is more powerful.

The schools of the *rushdiyeh* give a better education than the elementary schools, and turn out instructed pupils. The best schoolmasters in the cities are compelled to compete with these, and to adopt the Government books.

It is in Constantinople, however, where the Government, supported by public opinion, is enabled to act most effectually. The schools are generally supplied with Government books, and the masters are better instructed, while they have a career in the Government schools.

In the country districts, the scholastic community is untouched, and in the large cities they only sustain the loss of a small proportion of pupils of the wealthier classes, but in time this must exercise a greater influence.

What has been hitherto described as to elementary schools, refers chiefly to the Turkish districts. The European Mussulmans, not of the Turkish race, are seldom well trained, and know little more than their prayers. They speak their own languages, Bulgarian, Bosnian or Servian, and Albanian, and in the island of Candia Greek; and can seldom read and write Turkish, if they speak it decently, and they do not, therefore, know the Arabic character. The Albanian and Candiot Mussulmans are more familiar with the Greek character.

The Arabs, on the other hand, receive instruction in their native language, the Arabic, and care little for Turkish. Schools are better attended among the Arabs, and there is a love of schooling and of reading, as among the Persians. The Arab schools send up many schoolmasters to the north, who become good teachers of Arabic.

The Koord Mussulmans are ill-taught. They use for correspondence the Persian language.

Great differences are to be found among the races of Turkey in their educational propensities.

The Arabs are a reading people, the Turks and Greeks are so to a less degree; then come the Armenians far behind. The Bulgarians, Bosnians and Albanians, Mussulmans and Christians, the Koords, the Jews, the Candiot, it may be said the rayah Greek Christians, are not reading populations.

The Arabs of Turkey possess a noble language, and have access to a great literature, but can no longer be considered a literary people. Bagdad and Damascus produce but little. The literary activity is kept up by the presses of Cairo and of the Catholic missionaries.

The Osmanlees have an old and living literature, employing a copious and largely cultivated language. They are the people in Turkey having the most vigorous literature, but they cannot be considered as an active literary people.

The Armenians have an ancient literature, and are slowly creating a new one; but it does not permeate the mass. The literary language is not that of the people

The Greek-speaking populations employ the ancient literature, and possess a new literature, which has its seat outside in Athens. There is little literary activity among the indigenous or immigrant Greeks. The literary language is not that of the people.

The Jews produce little or nothing. Their classic language is the dead Hebrew, their household language Spanish or Italian, and their out-door language Turkish in the north and Arabic in the south.

The Bulgarians are creating a literature.

The Albanians and Koords are not known ever to have had a literature from the beginning of history. They each use a foreign language for correspondence.

These are the elements on which the Government of Turkey has to work.

In Asia Minor there is a general language; the Turkish, spoken by Osmanlees, Turkomans and Armenians, Jews and native Greeks. The Koords and Lazians (a tribe allied to the Georgians), speak their own languages, but admit the Turkish for general intercourse. The small minority of Hellenic Greeks, perhaps 100,000 in number, speak local or "bad" Greek, and resist the use of the Turkish in speaking or in schooling.

In Syria and Arabistan, Arabic is the general language of all the races and sects; and Turkish can never be more than a special administrative language. The Turkish officials conform to the Arabic language and literature.

In the islands the dialects of "bad" Greek are largely employed among Christians and Mussulmans, but Turkish is diffused by the Turkish officials and soldiery.

In Northern Turkey there can be no general language beyond the use of Turkish for administrative purposes, for which this language is advancing and Greek diminishing. The main populations speak Slav dialects, which are being developed. Greek is spoken by a small population, and is used by some of the Albanians. The Albanians are playing the same game in language as in politics, learning Turkish for their Turkish and Egyptian service, and Greek for Greek purposes.

Among these northern European Mussulmans, the elementary schools produce less effect than upon the Osmanlees, because while the legal and theological terms have become freely naturalised in the Osmanlee language, they are not naturalised in Bosnian or Albanian; and the instruction is a dead and foreign teaching. The Bosnian and Bulgarian Mussulmans are fanatic Mussulmans, the Albanians generally indifferent.

Under these circumstances, the Government has a field in European Turkey for introducing vernacular instruction, and in some cases establishing mixed schools for Mussulmans and Christians.

My own opinion is, that the school numbers of Constantinople for the Mussulmans, including Government schools, are about 1 in 15 of the male population for boys, and 1 in 25 of the female population for girls. The proportion will be higher for the Arab districts, and falling lower among the various populations, until it becomes almost nothing among the country Koords, Albanians, and Servians.

There are no statistics of reading and writing. With regard to females, those who can write must be very few, in consequence of the general practice of having letters written by a public writer. Where this practice prevails, letters must be read by the same practitioners, as they are in the habit of supplying their customers with high-flown and obscure words, as may be seen among the Irish letter writers in the large cities of our own country. It is considered most respectable to send a grand letter. There are plenty of women who know how to write, but then they use a script corresponding to our printed character. None but women of a high class write a good hand. Women, who can read, are not in the habit of reading; they do not acknowledge the necessity of it.

For like reason the lower classes of men can seldom read and write, and do not go to school if they can help it. Reading and writing, and reckoning are considered the special requisites of Government servants, ulema, and shopkeepers. For all not in the constant habit of writing, the *hojah*, or country schoolmaster, is to be found everywhere; and in the cities he sets up sometimes as conveyancer, law stationer, and letter writer. The offices of these learned scribes are to be found close to the Government offices, and their charges are very moderate. They train pupils.

Signatures afford no statistics in Turkey for man or woman, as no one puts his signature, but the impression of his seal bearing his name, whether he can read and write or no.

A mechanic or tenant farmer is not generally a writing man, but a domestic servant is, as he may become a functionary high or low. Much of the local government is carried on by the unpaid services of the country gentry and elders of the villages, but the *hojah*, as explained, does the writing work.

The post office is a time-honoured service in Turkey, and is freely used. It has been much improved, and the telegraph introduced widely. The periodical press exercises no influence beyond Constantinople, nor is bookselling active beyond that metropolis.

Under all these circumstances, the progress of Mussulman education, notwithstanding the compulsory law, must be slow ; and it will be long before the lower classes are generally acted upon ; still it will be seen by the next section that the work is going on.

M. Heuschling gives a statement that of 100 Mussulman children in Turkey, 95 receive a good elementary education. From whence he got this I do not know, but it is not in conformity with my experience. He likewise says that in 1850 there were in the main part of Constantinople 396 schools, with 22,700 pupils of both sexes. This must be the schools of all sects, if the figures mean anything, for in 1277 (1860), the date of the publication of his book, the official return was 279 Mussulman schools, with 9,975 boys and 6,787 girls, total 16,752.

II.—*The Government.*

As the Government, being a Mussulman Government, has a direct interest in Mussulman education, its labours greatly affect Section No. I, and the two sections (Nos. I and II) will exhibit what has been done for this great majority of the population, while an introduction is given to the education of the various sections of the minority.

From the earliest conquests, the Osmanlee sultans, even the most tyrannical or most dissolute, have always assumed the character of patrons of learning. By them the great schools of learning have been founded, and the leading colleges and libraries of Constantinople form part of the establishments of the several imperial mosques, which commemorate the respective sultans. Beyond this they have been in direct relations with the most learned men of their times, and have allowed many of them great licence, even in the most despotic times. They have encouraged history, which has flourished, the study of the law, in which Turkey has acquired distinction, and likewise poetry, so that the eminent poet of his day is always a marked public character.

The present sultan obeys the traditions of his house. Generally speaking, as I pointed out in some sketches of Turkish literary men in the "*Athenæum*," every literary man is in Government employment, and the administration three years ago was composed of statesmen, each of whom had figured as a literary man. The Sultan presides every year at the thanksgiving of the schools.

The Minister of Public Instruction (*Mearif-i-Umumiye Nazari*), is one of the body of ministers, and is usually, but not necessarily, a member of the Great Council. His office is generally what would be called a cabinet office. In practice there is seldom a separate Minister of Public Instruction, for this ministry being in the same

building with the Ministries of Commerce, Public Works and Agriculture, it happens that these ministries are held by one, and never three ministers.

It is seldom the Ministry of Public Instruction has the benefit of a single or separate minister, but it has of a separate department. Of late years it has been presided over by men, fully understanding the office and the service, and zealous for its promotion. These have been Edhem Pasha, Safvet Pasha, Kemal Effendi, and Subhi Bey. All are good Oriental scholars, and well acquainted with French; Kemal Effendi likewise with German. All, too, are travelled men. Edhem Pasha has presided at intervals for several years; he exercised a close supervision over the schools and masters; promoted the publication of new books, and took part in the new Turkish magazine. Safvet Pasha has been nearly as much connected with the department: he was latterly ambassador in Paris. Kemal Effendi, who has been attached to the Paris and Berlin embassies, has himself compiled schoolbooks. Public instruction has been his specialty. He has one of the finest libraries in Constantinople. Subhi Bey is the present minister, and it is his specialty likewise. He is a writer on statistics and Mussulman numismatics, whose communications have been translated in France and Germany.

Besides the Ministers of Public Instruction, many others take a direct or indirect part in these labours. His Highness Fuad Pasha, is the author of the standard Turkish grammar; which, for European use, has been translated into French by our countryman, Redhouse. His Highness the Prince Mustapha Faryl Pasha takes an active interest, and his visits to England and France are constantly devoted to the acquisition of elementary books for models. Ahmed Vesik Effendi, an accomplished scholar, and a reader of Shakspeare, besides his other literary labours has promoted the compilation of schoolbooks. Dervish Pasha, Director-General of Mines, a man educated in the schools of England and France, is commonly the President of the Council of Public Instruction, and sometimes the under secretary. He takes an active and zealous interest. He was one of the promoters of the scheme of a university, and gave public lectures on natural philosophy. Munif Effendi, the Brougham of Turkey, a scholar in the languages and knowledge of the East and West, has devoted himself to educational progress. For some years he has conducted the "Turkish Review," and is the founder of the Osmanlee Literary Society, in itself an educational institution. He is a member of the Council of Public Instruction; so is Kadri Bey, who is following the same career, and engaged in the same labours as Munif Effendi. He was here lately in reference to his project of settling for some time in London for purposes of

study. The eminent mollah, Ahmed Jevdet Pasha, instituted and carried out a competitive examination for the civil service. Others who have taken part in the council are His Highness Kiamil Pasha, author of a translation of Fenelon, Ismael Pasha, a man of distinguished attainments, and Chinasse Effendi, an eloquent writer.

Among the works in progress by the present minister, Subhi Bey, is one by a countryman of ours—Mr. Charles Wells—entitled “*Ilm Tedbiri Mulk*” (Science of State Management). Mr. Wells learned Turkish in King’s College, of which he is a prizeman, and has never been in Turkey.

The council has been much modified of late years, and the rayah element more largely introduced, but it will be noticed that each community maintains its own elementary schools, and that the rayahs can only be expected to participate in the management of mixed schools. In this respect the proportion of rayahs or non-Mussulmans in the council is large.

The Council of Public Instruction is divided into two sections. The first, under the presidency of the minister, consists of twelve Mussulman members, and has charge of the schools of the department. The second section, presided over by Dervish Pasha, has charge of the technical and superior schools, and consists of sixteen members, mostly official, or named from their connection with special branches of education. They include, besides the grand translator of the Porte, Mekyatib Askeriye Nazari, director of the military schools; Mekyatib Tabibiye Nazari, director of the medical schools; Mekyatib Bahriye Nazari, director of the naval schools; Topji Mektebi Nazari, director of the artillery schools; also a Mussulman doctor, three Greek doctors, two Armenian doctors, an Armenian member, but only one Jewish member; for the Jews, as yet, take a small part in public affairs.

Most of these persons are only officially attached; but the meetings are held regularly, and are well attended. They are real consultative bodies, and do not impede the action or responsibility of the minister.

The ministry has a small staff of secretaries, accountants, and officials.

The labours of the ministry may be thus divided:—

a. First, the improvement of the national, elementary, mosque, or ecclesiastical endowed schools throughout the empire.

b. Second, the establishment of separate girls’ schools apart from the mixed Mussulman schools.

c. Third, the establishment of the rushdiyeh, or grammar school or town college in the great town of the empire.

d. Fourth, the conduct of the normal and special schools of the ministry.

e. Fifth, a consultative action as to the superior special schools for medicine, the army, artillery, and navy.

f. Sixth, the supply of books, maps, and school requisites for the schools of all denominations.

g. Seventh, the promotion of the university, museum, public lectures, literary societies, &c.

h. Eighth, the improvement of the public libraries of the metropolis.

i. The establishment of examinations and competitive examinations.

a. The mode in which the improvement of the elementary schools is pursued, is pretty well pointed out in Section I.

So far as rayah schools are concerned, the Government in no degree interferes with their freedom of action. It assists, where needful, in the grant of sites, and sometimes of buildings. All school buildings are on the same footing, and exempt from taxation.

b. The improvement of Mussulman female education has made small progress. Mothers do not require separate schools for the girls, and appear to prefer the mixed schools. It is considered the *hojah* is the proper person to instruct.

The *rushdiyeh*, or female academy at Constantinople, established for some years, though making progress, in 1283 (1866) had only reached ninety pupils. It has three men professors for school instruction, and ladies for women's work.

c. The special work of the ministry is the establishment of the *rushdiyeh mektebi*, which corresponds to our grammar school and the French College Impérial.

The *rushdiyeh* of the metropolis, including that for the girls, are thirteen in number, established in the city and suburbs. The two chief are in the ministry; the others are placed in or near mosques, alongside the colleges.

The schools are provided with teachers for Turkish, Arabic, Persian, religious instruction, history, geography, arithmetic, mathematics, book-keeping, and drawing. French is taught in the special schools.

The masters are chosen for their competency, and are strictly inspected. The remuneration appears sufficient to draw good men from the class of *hojahs*.

The number of schools has been the same for seven years. The increase has taken place in the number of scholars and in the improved staff and teaching. In 1277 (1860) the number of scholars, including girls, was 1,125, and in 1283 (1866) 1,652, showing an increase of about 50 per cent. The improved results must have been in greater proportion. These schools are now

educating the sons of the functionaries, of many of the ulema, and of the trading classes. There can be no doubt of their success, and that they have taken a hold of the public.

In Roomelia or Europe there are now forty-six of these schools, and they have reached a pretty fair stage of development, considering the nature of the populations.

In 1267 (1849) there were six schools and 870 scholars.

From 1277 (1860) to 1283 (1866), the increase in six years has been 50 per cent. from thirty-one schools to forty-six schools.

Of scholars there is no return. The minimum average is probably 90 per school; this would give, last year, 4,140. Adrianople is the only city having two schools. In some of the provinces the schools are open to all sects, and are attended by all.

The yearly progress of schools since 1276 has been as follows:—

1276 ('59)	—
'77 ('60)	4
'78 ('61)	3
'79 ('62)	—
'80 ('63)	—
'81 ('64)	5
'82 ('65)	6
'83 ('66)	1

The first experiments having been made in Constantinople and Europe, of late years the chief attention has latterly been bestowed on Anatolia or Asia.

So late as 1277 (1860), the number of schools was only seven in the cities of Broosah, Rhodes, Yuzghat, Smyrna, Izmid, Kara Hissar, and Kastamooni.

The increase in six years has been from seven schools to thirty-six, or 400 per cent.

The yearly progress has been:—

1278 ('61)	5 schools
'79 ('62)	1 „
'80 ('63)	1 „
'81 ('64)	7 „
'82 ('65)	8 „
'83 ('66)	7 „

One school is established in Tripoli of Barbary. The number of scholars may be estimated thus:—

1277 ('60)	350
'83 ('66)	1,800

The schools in Asia have to encounter great prejudices from the fanatical populations. All attempts of the Government to intro-

duce the teaching of European languages, have failed. One young Mussulman, in Smyrna, of late years learned French, and he was declared to be, in consequence, a Freemason, or infidel.

In all the rushdiyeh schools the Government books and maps are used, and this is a challenge to what are considered the Orthodox schools.

d. Attached to the ministry are some special schools; as the normal school for training masters for the rushdiyeh schools, and the preparatory schools for the civil service. The pupils in these latter schools are of all sects, and are taught French in addition to the general courses. The study of the law, and particularly the new statute laws and codes, are especial subjects of teaching. The purpose is to train clerks and judges for the new criminal courts and tribunals of commerce, thereby raising a new body of lawyers independent of the ulema. These schools become the means of introducing distinguished pupils of all classes into the public service.

There are no returns of pupils.

e. The great special schools are appendages of the army and navy departments; and the action of the Ministry of Public Instruction is only indirect.

The Imperial School of Medicine is on a large scale, and trains a large body of students, of all sects, for the medical service of the army and navy. The professors are partly Mussulmans and partly Greeks, Armenians, and Levantines, with some Europeans. This is almost the only public school which the Jews enter.

Very unfavourable reports have been given of this school, and it certainly has not responded to the efforts of the Government. As it is not worse than the schools in neighbouring countries, nor its practitioners worse than those of Turkey and the neighbouring countries, its relative position may be appreciated. The fact is, that it is an example of progress, being a new creation amid difficulties. The pupils are greatly deficient in preliminary education, and much time is taken up in their instruction. The number of pupils is upwards of four hundred.

A military academy for civilians is in progress.

The public are served by some few English and French medical men, employed by their respective Governments, and who give the tone to practice, by doctors from Padua and Athens, by self-created doctors, drum majors, homœopathists, Jewish doctors, charlatans, and medicine vendors. The Mussulmans are chiefly served by holy men, who administer the holy breath, holy spittle, religious charms, and talismans. All sects employ barbers and midwives.

The Turkish hospitals are very clean. Each community,

Orthodox, Armenian, or Jewish, maintains its own hospital. In large country towns the hospital is sometimes attended by the chemists in turn, there being no doctor. As a general rule, the populations of Turkey are very little inclined to fraternise with doctors, and particularly to pay them. There are whole counties without a doctor.

The Imperial School of the Military Sciences is a large establishment, with a considerable staff. It has about 500 pupils, and in the junior school from 200 to 300. The latter is a cadet school of boys. Much time is lost from the pupils being unprepared or ill-prepared for the class of studies they have to engage in. The course includes general education, French, and special military instruction. Except the teachers of languages, the professors are Mussulmans trained in England or France.

The school only turns out about 100 officers a-year—a small number for such an army, and almost the only educated men in the army.

	Pupils.
In 1279 ('62) there were in the upper school	341
„ '83 ('66) „ „ „	492
	<hr/>
Increase.....	151 or 45 per cent.
	<hr/>

There are four divisional schools in the provinces, two in Europe, and two in Asia, each with about 80 pupils. That at Damascus is an artillery school.

At Paris about twenty-six officers are generally in training in a staff school.

The engineer and artillery officers in training in Woolwich vary, and are few in number.

Of the Imperial Artillery School I have no particulars. The artillery practice is good.

The trained staff officers are generally good, and may compare with those of most armies in Europe.

All the necessary drill and instruction books have been compiled and printed on the best systems.

The training of the warrant and non-commissioned officers and soldiers in elementary instruction is being prosecuted.

Of the Imperial Naval School at Halki, in the Prince's Islands, near Constantinople, I can give no particulars. It appears clean and fairly organised. The chief and ruling officers are now Mussulmans (as in the olden times); some have been trained in the English navy, and many speak English. The engineers are either English or Mussulmans. Some of the latter are trained at Woolwich.

Attempts are being made to form educated corps for the mining service, the forests, and the roads, chiefly by means of French instructors. The school of agriculture, founded in 1850, failed.

f. The Government has been employed for some time in publishing the requisite books for the elementary schools—the rush-diyeh, the military and naval schools, and the school of medicine; also geographical maps. The new codes supply text-books for law, besides those already existing. The superior special schools are supplied with apparatus.

Facilities are given for the publication of newspapers, and their transmission by post.

g. A university was planned by the great Sultan Mahmood, and an extensive building erected, but not fitted. He proposed that this monument of the new regime should be placed on the site of the barracks of the extinguished janissaries. As yet the project has not been realised, although several times attempted; and the building has been applied to various temporary purposes. A museum of geology; library, Oriental and European; chemical laboratory and set of philosophical apparatus have been gradually accumulated. Of late years men of eminence, as Ahmed Vefik Effendi and Dervish Pasha, have given courses on the natural and moral sciences, history, &c., to crowded audiences.

An academy of the most distinguished scholars was formed for the promotion of Turkish literature under the name of Anjuman-i-Danish in 1851. It includes His Highness Aali Pasha, His Highness Fuad Pasha, Edhem Pasha, Ismael Pasha, Subhi Bey, Kiamil Effendi, His Highness Mehemed Rushdi Pasha, His Highness Kiamil Pasha, Ahmed Vefik Effendi, Dervish Pasha, and Ahmed Vefik Pasha. The last list of members includes twenty-seven. Unfortunately all these are persons of high standing, chosen without respect to party, and therefore divided by political rivalries. The institution has consequently failed to accomplish the desired objects.

One of its most important plans has been to produce a new history of the empire, founded on the Turkish authorities, with the aid of all European quotations. Although the commission was named, personal changes and movements have prevented anything being done.

A most valuable society was formed by Munif Effendi, called the Jemiyet Ilamiyeh Osmaniye, or Osmanlee Scientific Society, which consists of a large number of members of all sects, but chiefly Mussulman, paying a small subscription. The Government has given them a house, in which they have a newsroom, with Turkish and other newspapers, a library—Oriental, English, and French—and class rooms and lecture rooms. The society was going on well when the cholera and the great fire interfered with it.

The society published, under the editorship of Munif Effendi and Kadri Bey, a monthly work called the "*Mejmooi Funoon*," or "*Magazine of Science*," consisting of articles, original and compiled from Oriental and European sources, by eminent writers on political economy, banking in England, paper money in Tartary, geology, history, &c.

There is an opposition society, with its magazine, which has not flourished so well, and another a strictly Mussulman society.

The Imperial Academy of Medicine consists chiefly of the Christian practitioners in the metropolis; it receives a subvention of 600*l.* from the Government; and has a fine reading room, a large library, and publishes a journal in French. The meteorological observations are therein recorded.

The attempt to form a like society at Smyrna, failed through the jealousy of the local sects.

The Statistical Bureau founded by the Government about three years ago, has languished because there are no departmental officers to supply the statistics. It is probable that the supporters of the plan had no notion that the materials must be first collected before they can be digested. Still the want of statistics has been much felt, and various attempts have from time to time been made. The cadastral survey of several provinces, and the official almanack, with the help of Ahmed Vefik Effendi and Subhi Bey, were evidences of this; but wherever a measure depends on the exertions of individuals, it will be relaxed by the absence or removal of its supporters. It is only when a system has been thoroughly formed and put in working order, that it becomes self-supporting.

On this head it may be observed that it is a great misfortune no blue books or *livres jaunes* are published; and thus the Government does itself great injustice. This measure, and the statistical department, I have constantly urged on my Osmanlee friends, and I recommend others to do the same.

Of the expense of the Ministry of Public Instruction I can give no reliable account. The amount borne on the budget is extended by extraordinary votes; on the whole the department is kept down by the necessities of the treasury. In the budget an entry is made for the Ministry of Public Works and Education in one sum.

h. Throughout the empire there are public libraries attached to the mosques and colleges. These include, of course, books on theology, law and history in Arabic and Turkish.

In Constantinople there is a large imperial library in the Palace of the Seraglio, and forty other libraries. The total number of volumes is 72,000, and the largest number in any library is nearly 14,000, but some contain only a few hundred volumes. It is,

however, to be noted that, as these are written on a stenographic system, they contain an immense mass of matter. There are said to be besides 1,000 libraries attached to the mosques.

The bookselling trade for Oriental works is large and active, and high prices are given for rare books. There are many fine private libraries, notwithstanding the frequent fires.

The Government is having all the public libraries catalogued. Part of this is in print.

The only general libraries are those of the Dar ul Funoon; the special schools, the literary societies, and the school of medicine, all small.

i. Examinations and competitive examinations are carried out in the military, naval, and medical schools, in the elementary schools of law and administration, and in the normal school. They have been for some time established for the class of the mudir or sub-prefect in the civil service.

Educational tests are now generally required. Formerly any one might be an official; a secretary did the writing, and the principal applied his seal.

For the Foreign Office and for many departments, a knowledge of the French language is required; French also for the military staff; for the naval staff a knowledge of English, and the possession of our tongue is becoming a strong recommendation for general advancement.

In the army schooling is being extended: till lately a captain was not required to be able to read or write.

III.—*Orthodox Schools.*

The members of the Orthodox religion constitute one of the Five Nations of Rayahs as the Orthodox nation, privileged to conduct their own affairs within their own community, the Patriarch of Constantinople being the recognised official head, and organ of communication with the Sublime Porte.

The Orthodox, or Greek Church, includes the Greeks, Bulgarians, Bosnians, Wallachians, Moldavians, Servians, some Albanians, and some Syrians. Over these the patriarch and bishops and their civil officers, all of the Greek-speaking population, formerly dominated. Of late years the churches of the kingdom of Greece and the principalities of Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro have established each for itself an independent synod. The Slav-speaking Christians of Bulgaria and Bosnia now demand emancipation from Greek-speaking bishops and priests, and independence of the patriarch under a national clergy.

Of the Orthodox remaining under the patriarchal yoke, a distinction is therefore to be drawn between the Slav-speaking and

Greek-speaking Orthodox; and this difference must become greater until total separation.

The Slavs constitute the larger population. Their education, heretofore limited to Greek ecclesiastical teaching, was very restricted by its nature and in extent. These populations are now establishing national schools, in which they are assisted by the Turkish authorities. Schools, libraries, and newspapers are being patronised under the new viceregal system. These Slav dialects are, it is to be observed, those of the Mussulmans likewise. Turkish is being learned for administrative purposes. (See Appendix.)

The Greek-speaking Orthodox now in fact constitute the Greek community; but only a portion of these, namely, those rayahs or Turkish subjects, are legally members of the *Rom Milleti*, and under the jurisdiction of the patriarch. The immigrants from the kingdom of Greece, and their descendants, are under the jurisdiction of the Hellenic consuls. The schools, churches, and hospitals are, however, used by all the Greek-speaking Orthodox, and the Millet or Nation is in reality under the influence of the Hellenic propagandists.

Of late years reform has been agitated, the clerical element in the Greek general assembly has been reduced, and the lay element made preponderant.

The native or rayah Greeks generally speak Turkish, and this was, in many cases, the sole language of them, and their priests till of late years the propagandists have been exerting themselves to Hellenize the rayahs.

At present schools are being generally established. The buildings are good, the masters well paid, and competent men trained in the university of Athens or academies of Greece. Many of them are men of fair attainments. In the larger cities of Turkey the children of the wealthier classes are trained in private colleges and boarding schools, receiving a liberal education; ancient Greek being greatly promoted and Turkish excluded.

Female education, formerly neglected, is being pushed forward under the same circumstances.

The language used in all these schools is the "good" modern Greek, which the propagandists hope to establish as the general language.

Where there are only public schools, they are built out of the funds of the church or community; the fees are moderate, the poor educated free, and any deficiency is made up by a proportionate voluntary levy. In such matters the Greeks act well in concert, and their schools, hospitals, churches, and poor funds are ably administered; the schoolmasters and mistresses are well paid, and the priests are ill paid.

Elementary education among the Greeks owes much to the schools once formed by the Church Missionary Society.

Although the people are most superstitious, education is chiefly carried on by laymen. The priests are generally ignorant, and suspected for being in official communication with the Ottoman Government; while the schoolmasters are thorough propagandists. In the country the old schools are very poor, like the churches.

The alienation of the minority of the Greek-speaking population from the other communities of the empire, is thus being thoroughly accomplished; and the once great school of Turkish among the Fanariotes, is dwindling to insignificance.

The children are exceedingly apt and fond of schooling, but as the language taught is not the household languages, the fruits among boys and girls are seldom permanent.

The Government exercises no interference, and grants no subvention. It favours the acquisition of sites and endowments in mortmain. Its only intervention is the occasional removal of some propagandist who has made himself too conspicuous in the eyes of the authorities.

There are no statistics available, but there can be no doubt a large proportion of the Greek town population is at school, and that the adults can read and write. In the country they cannot, but the children are being sent to school.

There is little provision for superior or special instruction among the local Greeks, nothing higher than the grammar school; as the more advanced pupils resort to Athens. There are the colleges of the Fanar and of Halki, for the priesthood. These supply the best educated clergy.

IV.—*Armenian Schools.*

The Armenians constitute the second of the nations. They are an Indo-European people, of remote affinity to the western stocks; they are not of the Greek religion, but following their own rite, which is called the Gregorian. In common with every sect in Turkey, except the Protestant, their ritual language is a dead language—the old Armenian; their household language is Turko-Armenian—Armenian with a large admixture of Turkish words, and their out-door language is Turkish; they are building up a literary language of modern Armenian, purified from Turkish.

A portion of the Armenians are Roman Catholics, and some recent converts Protestants. In political feeling they belong to the main body, but do not frequent the same schools.

The mass of the Armenians in old Armenia are very ignorant, but the large bodies of immigrants in the western districts of

Turkey are making great efforts for education ; this is particularly the case in Constantinople, Smyrna and Broossah.

Their schools are well built, the schoolmasters men of learning, well chosen, and liberally paid ; and the pupils in the elementary and higher schools taught gratuitously, whether rich or poor. The richer girls are sent to private schools. The school teaching has been much influenced by the example of the American missionaries.

The school language is the modern Armenian ; Turkish is taught, and in the higher classes French. English is often learnt.

My opinion is, that there is more real learning among the Armenians than among any community in Turkey.

Evening schools for adults have, within three or four years, been set up in Constantinople with great success.

V.—*Catholic or Latin Schools*

Although there is a Catholic *Millet*, in fact the direction of Catholic affairs and schools is chiefly in the hands of foreign priests, and the funds are supplied by foreign missionary bodies, the Congregation of the Propaganda and the Mekhitarists. The French Government contributes 40,000*l.* a-year. The Austrian Government has been the great protector of the Armenian Catholics, the French of the Syrian Catholics, the Pope of the Myrdites.

The chief national bodies of Catholics are these : the Armenian Catholics mostly consist of recruits, on political grounds, to acquire the protection of the foreign Powers. Their colleges and schools are ably conducted by the celebrated order of Mekhitarists ; their instruction is in Armenian, French, and Turkish ; and able pupils are drafted to their colleges in Venice, Vienna, and Paris. The Mekhitarists are men of distinguished learning, and have been the chief promoters of the study of Armenian learning ; their pupils have furnished some of the best Turkish scholars among the Christians in the Government service.

The Maronite and Syrian Christians are directly under French tutelage. Their language is Arabic, but French is assiduously propagated, and able pupils are drafted off to France. They furnish the Government with some servants.

In the great towns are Propaganda colleges on the French system, in which French is the chief language for instruction, and in which the Catholic half-castes are brought up ; the poorer half-castes are taught by Christian Brothers, and the girls, rich and poor, by nuns.

The instruction is more pretentious than solid : French becomes the school language only ; the household and out-door language is Arabic or bad Greek

The Roman Catholic Albanians consist of the Myrdites, who are in feudal dependence on the Porte, and of scattered North Albanians, chiefly Guegs, all under the tutelage of Italian monks. They have some schools.

VI.—*Jewish Schools.*

The Jews form a *Millet*, and have the same autonomy as the others, but as yet the chief power remains with the ecclesiastical body.

The Jews may, for the purpose of this inquiry, be divided into Arab-speaking Jews and Turkish-speaking Jews; though Spanish, now modified into Italian, is the national language. In Syria the schools are active; the children learn Arabic, and can speak it, and are acquainted with the sacred language. Arabic, a Semitic language, being the vernacular of the general population, assists the study of Hebrew.

The schools are poor, and the schoolmasters ill paid, but masters and scholars are apt.

In Turkey proper the Jews use Spanish or Italian as a household language, and Turkish as a household and out-door language; and generally correspondence is carried on in Spanish or Turkish, written in rabbinical script. The schools are ill-constructed and dirty, and the pupils commonly learn nothing beyond the Hebrew character. The Hebrew is a dead and foreign language, known to a few rabbis, and written in by fewer men of learning. The rabbis learn in the medressehs of the great cities.

This state of affairs has kept the Jews in a very low position, socially and politically. As these Jews cannot read and write Turkish, they are not employed in the civil service; there are only a few in the medical service. As they cannot read and write European languages, they cannot be employed as clerks in counting-houses, but in Jewish establishments are replaced by European Jews.

The great prejudice against improved education, arises from the irritation caused by the efforts of the English societies for the conversion of the Jews, which seldom succeed in purchasing the permanent conversion of a Jew, but which cause great moral suffering among the Jewish communities.

The loss to the Government and the general community from the non-utilisation of the intellect of this large population, is very great. In Smyrna a Jewish college has been established by the efforts of some Jews of the city, assisted by the balance of the cholera relief contributions of Sir Francis and Mr. Frederick Goldsmid, Sir Moses Montefiore, Mr. David Salomons, and the Messrs. Rothschild. Boys who could not write in any language were, in three or four months taught to write Turkish from dictation; the

Turkish handwriting being by Europeans considered so difficult as to be a serious impediment to its acquisition.

At Constantinople Count Nazim Camondo and his friends have carried on a college, which is now supplying the Government with employees. Hitherto the Jews who have acquired instruction, have gained it in foreign establishments. Their progress is a sufficient testimony of the capacity of the population.

VII.—*Protestant Schools.*

Several thousand Armenians, anxious to escape the tyranny of their civil governors, the Armenian patriarch and bishops, have embraced Protestantism under the invitation of members of the American Board of Missionaries, and under the patronage of the English ambassador, Lord Stratford, and the American ministers. They have been constituted as an independent Millet, with all the privileges of the others.

By the assistance of American funds and the devoted exertions of the American missionaries, men and women, a great influence has been exerted in the Armenian body generally; their services have not so much been devoted to theological propagandism, as to rendering service as physicians, teachers, and social reformers.

Schools are established wherever there are Armenians, and these have greatly affected the other schools. The study of the English language, and that of the useful arts, have been much promoted.

It is very questionable whether the separation will be permanent, as the Protestants are now politically united with the Gregorians, and there are parties on both sides willing to conciliate the religious differences.

VIII.—*Foreign Schools.*

The foreign establishments for education are numerous. Those of the Propaganda, the Mekhitarists, the Society for Converting the Jews, and the American Board of Missions, have been already referred to. The Church Missionary Society, although its propagandist efforts have produced little effect, is entitled to the merit of establishing improved elementary instruction among the Greek community, as the Americans have among the Armenians. The efforts of missionaries among the Chaldæan Christians, are to be placed in this category.

The English have exerted great influence by their private schools—the English college at Smyrna, the College of Bournabat, the school of the Rev. Mr. Curtis at Constantinople, and the ladies' school, patronised by Lady Stratford, at Constantinople. These have not only received English children, but Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, and have proved models to other schools.

The College of Bebek, directed by the Rev. Dr. Hamlin and the American missionaries, may be called an institution for propagating improved instruction throughout the country.

The establishments which have produced the most efficient influence on the education of girls of the wealthier classes, have been the schools of the German Protestant Deaconesses Institution, at Smyrna and elsewhere. Not only the English and American children are taught by these ladies, but Armenians, Greeks, and Jewesses, without fear of their religious belief being tampered with. This institution, supported by the Queen Dowager of Prussia, and consisting of German and some few English ladies, has shown as much charity and devotion in the communication of school teaching, as in the relief of the sick in its hospitals at Jerusalem and Constantinople.

The Italians, since their unification, have shown an ambition to reassert their ancient pre-eminence in the east. Among other efforts, are the establishment of schools, from which the Catholic clergy are excluded, and in which the Italian Jews take part.

IX.—*Conclusion.*

There can be no reasonable question that the schooling of all sects in Turkey is advancing, and that measures have been taken to ensure that the progress shall be lasting. The quality of the instruction is improving, and will improve.

In Turkey, it is apparent to the common eye that morality is not necessarily connected with what is understood as schooling, any more than it is with religious teaching. Except perhaps the Albanians and the Koords, all the populations of Turkey are religious even to superstition. The element of religion is uniform; the Mussulman is not more religious than the Orthodox, nor the Orthodox than the Jew.

School culture varies, but does not conform to the standard of morality. A common observer would place the Turks and the Jews on the highest level as to moral conduct, and the Christians on a lower level. If schooling were to be the test, the Greeks and Catholics would stand highest, and in morality among the lowest. The Arab Mussulman does not stand on the level of the Turk for morality, nor the Arab-speaking Jew with the Turk-speaking Jew. The Turk-speaking Greek is an honester man than the Greek-speaking Greek.

How far the differences are to be accounted for by race I will not enter upon; they are not to be explained by the favourite argument of the races, lower in morals, owing this degradation to long continued political oppression, for the northern rayah Jew bears as high a character for integrity as the Turkish Mussulman. Much

must depend on the manner in which ethical teaching is conducted, and on the influence of the example of a well ordered community having a sound public opinion, and expressing it. The Greeks have no sermons in their country churches, and little ethical teaching in school or household; the teaching of the clergy is ritualistic. The Mussulmans acknowledge the public teaching of sermons, but practise it little; but then the ritualistic portion of Islam being limited, the instruction of the schoolmaster is particularly directed to ethics in the exposition of the Koran. What is taught in the school, is believed, and maintained in the household by father and mother; thus a good ethical standard is maintained, and a sound public opinion created, and this is brought to bear on any invader. It is this, in my view, which acts materially on non-Mussulman communities in contact with Mussulmans. This explains the higher standard of the rayah Greeks as compared with the Hellenic Greeks. In the Mussulman communities the test of right and wrong is applied to each transaction, the religious and the ethical test conforming. Evil is not to be compounded for by burning a small taper or little oil lamp, kissing the picture of a saint, or obtaining absolution from a priest; nor would highway robbery be held to be satisfied by devoting part of the proceeds to the construction of a church. Thus, while the Christian in discussion would allow the same theory of morals as the Mussulman, in practice he can obtain dispensation for the invasion of any principle, without exposure to social condemnation, and without dread of after consequences.

The extent to which the progress of school teaching in Turkey will promote morality, remains to be seen.

APPENDIX.

TABLE I.—*Elementary Schools. Constantinople and Environs.*
Official Statement.

	1277 (‘60).	1278 (‘61).	1279 (‘62).	1280 (‘63).	1282 (‘65).	1283 (‘66).
Mussulman schools	279	279	280	280	280	280
Orthodox „	77	77	77	77	77	77
Armenian „	37	37	37	37	37	37
Catholic and Latin schools.....	8	8	8	8	8	8
Jewish schools	44	44	44	44	44	44
Protestant „	5	5	5	5	5	5
Karaite „	3	3	3	3	3	3
Total	453	453	456	454	454	454

Note.—These official figures are evidently the reproduction of an old return, and are erroneous.

Official Returns of Pupils for the Years 1277 to 1280 (1860-63).

	Boys.	Girls.	Totals.
Mussulman schools	9,975	6,782	16,757
Orthodox „	6,497	—	6,477
Armenian „	6,528	—	6,528
Catholic or Latin schools	509	—	509
Jewish schools	2,552	—	2,552
Protestant „	51	31	72
Karaite „	100	—	100
	26,192	6,813	33,005

TABLE II.—*Mekteb-i-Rushdiyyeh. Constantinople and Suburbs. Scholars.*

Schools.	1277 (‘60).	1278 (‘61).	1279 (‘62).	1280 (‘63).	1282 (‘65).	1283 (‘66).
Dar ul Mearif	—	—	—	—	204	242
„ „	—	—	—	—	110	113
Sultan Bayazid.....	—	—	—	—	204	150
Shahzadeh Bashi.....	—	—	—	—	108	158
Faikh	—	—	—	—	110	175
Daood Pasha	—	—	—	—	81	78
Kassim Pasha or Galata.....	—	—	—	—	73	110
Beshiktash	—	—	—	—	114	148
Uskudar, Skutari.....	—	—	—	—	89	180
Eyoob	—	—	—	—	79	86
Fazli Pasha or Rumeli Hissar	—	—	—	—	—	62
Buglerbegi	—	—	—	—	60	70
Girls Rushdiyyeh	—	—	—	—	70	90
Total schools	13	13	14	15	14	14
„ scholars.....	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,125	1,302*	1,652
Schools—normal, civil ser- vice, and law preparatory }	3	3	3	3	3	3

Note.—These figures are evidently inexact.

* Includes scholars in the preparatory special schools ; except these the figures are not in excess. 1277, 1278, 1279, and 1280 are repetitions of an old return.

TABLE III.—*List of Mekteb-i-Rushdiyyeh.*

EUROPE.

<i>Bosna Serai.</i>	<i>Dramah.</i>
<i>Travnik.</i>	<i>Galeboli, Gallipoli.</i>
<i>Izvornik.</i>	<i>Sofeeah, Sofia.</i>
<i>Behkeh.</i>	<i>Berat.</i>
<i>Yeni Bazar.</i>	<i>Prizreen.</i>
<i>Banalooka.</i>	<i>Salonik, Thessalonika.</i>
<i>Mostar.</i>	<i>Widdeen, Widin.</i>
<i>Takvor Taghi (Redosto).</i>	<i>Guestondil.</i>
<i>Yeni Sheher.</i>	<i>Zoghra Ateek, or Eski Zeghra.</i>
<i>Yanina, Janina.</i>	<i>Samakov, founded 1277.</i>
<i>Monastir.</i>	<i>Nevrokob, „</i>
<i>Ishkodrah (Skutari, Albania).</i>	<i>Limani, „</i>
<i>Delvino.</i>	<i>Okhri, Okhrida, founded 1281.</i>
<i>Neesh, Nizza.</i>	<i>Silivri, „</i>
<i>Kandia.</i>	<i>Guerejeh, „</i>
<i>Haneeyah, founded 1279.</i>	<i>Leskovik, „</i>
<i>Retimo, Kandia, founded 1278.</i>	<i>Varna, „</i>
<i>Lofchah.</i>	<i>Mejidieh, in the Dobrujah, founded 1281.</i>
<i>Roosjook, Ruschuk.</i>	<i>Bazarjik, founded 1281.</i>
<i>Seerooz, Serres.</i>	<i>Midellu, Mytilene, Island, founded 1281.</i>
<i>Edrineh, Adrianople.</i>	<i>Argri, founded 1281.</i>
„ <i>Second School, founded in 1286.</i>	<i>Argob, „</i>
<i>Filibeh, Philippopoli.</i>	<i>Azizieh, founded 1282.</i>

ANATOLIA, OR ASIA.

<i>Broossah, Broussa.</i>	<i>Tarsoos, Tarsus, founded in 1280.</i>
<i>Rodos, Rhodes.</i>	<i>Lefkeh, „</i>
<i>Yuzghat.</i>	<i>Sakeez, Scio Island „</i>
<i>Izmeer, Smyrna.</i>	<i>Mosool, „</i>
<i>Izmeed, Ismid.</i>	<i>Samsoon, „</i>
<i>Kara Hissar Sharki.</i>	<i>Van, founded in 1281.</i>
<i>Kastamooni.</i>	<i>Sinoob, Sinope, founded in 1281.</i>
<i>Tarabolis Gharb, Tripoli, in Barbary.</i>	<i>Yenischeher Broossa, „</i>
<i>Sham Sherif, Damaskus, founded in 1277.</i>	<i>Amasia, „</i>
<i>Haleb, Aleppo, founded in 1277.</i>	<i>Gueveh, „</i>
<i>Alaya, „</i>	<i>Balukeser, „</i>
<i>Isbartah, Sparta of Pisidia, founded in 1277.</i>	<i>Kibris, Cyprus, „</i>
<i>Bigha, founded in 1277.</i>	<i>Boli, „</i>
<i>Tarabolis Sham, Tripoli in Syria, founded in 1279.</i>	<i>Erzinjan, founded in 1282.</i>
<i>Terabezoon, Trebizond, founded in 1279.</i>	<i>Kemakh, „</i>
<i>Sivas, founded in 1280.</i>	<i>Kars, „</i>
	<i>Sefrihissar, „</i>
	<i>Angorah, Ancyra, „</i>
	<i>Adah Bazari, „</i>
	<i>Bashkalaah, „</i>
	<i>Adana, „</i>

TABLE IV.—*Mekteb-i-Rushdiyyeh. Totals.*

	Constanti- nople Schools.	Scholars.	Europe Schools.	Asia Schools.	Europe and Asia Scholars.	Total.	
						Schools.	Scholars.
1267 ('50)	10?	—	5?	2?	—	17?	1,000
'76 ('59)	13?	—	—	—	2,256	—	3,381
'77 ('60)	13?	1,125	31	7	2,790	51	3,925
'78 ('61)	13?	1,125	34	12	3,125	59	4,250
'79 ('62)	13	1,125	34	13	3,125	60	4,250
'80 ('63)	13	1,125?	34	14	—	61	4,250
'81 ('64)	13	—	—	—	—	—	—
'82 ('65)	13	1,302	45	29	—	87	6,892*
'83 ('66)	13	1,652	46	36	—	95	7,592*

Note.—The above figures are all inexact and below the truth. The numbers of schools * are partly estimated.

TABLE V.—*List of Superior Special Schools.*

	Pupils.	
	1279 ('62).	1282 ('65).
Imperial Academy of Military Sciences	341	492
„ Supplementary School.....	260	318?
Ottoman Staff School at Paris.....	26	?
Imperial Guard, Military School at Broossah.....	80	76
2nd Division, „ Edrineh	80	97
3rd „ „ Monastir.....	80	88
5th „ „ (Artillery) Damascus	65	?
Imperial Artillery and Engineering School	?	?
„ Naval School at Halki	8	?
„ School of Medicine	400?	400?

TABLE VI.—*Public Mussulman Libraries of Constantinople.*

	Volumes.
Seraglio, volumes exclusive of MSS.....	1,500
Abul Fatih in Sultan Mehemed's Mosque*	5,271
Sultan Bayazid Mosque*	3,304
„ Suliman Mosque (Sulimaniye)	2,000
„ Selim and Sultan Mustapha (Lalalu Mosque)....	4,000
„ Osman Mosque (Osmaniyeh)	5,826
„ Mahmood in Aya Sofia†.....	6,292
„ Abdul Hamid in the College of the Hami- diyeh Mosque	1,482
Lala Ismael Effendi.....	862
Sultan Ahmed in the Yeni Jami	1,382
Great Aya Sofia, Seid Effendi	3,982
Kiuprili Mehemed Pasha and Fazil Ahmed Pasha } (Grand Viziers)	3,245
Sheikh ul Islam, Asher Effendi.....	4,828
Shahzadeh Mosque, Shehid Ali Pasha	6,826
„ Sundry Donations	1,235
„ Amad Ibrahim Pasha	1,152
Atif Effendi	1,995
Hekim Oghloo Pasha Mosque	1,968
Grand Vizier Mehemed Raghib Pasha.....	1,451
Jarah Effendi	2,182
Mehemed Murad Effendi	1,926
Hajji Bahrin College	1,233
Eyoob, Khosrev Pasha	1,168
„ Shehid Mehemed Pasha	483
Amoujah Hassan Pasha	541
Mustafa Pasha.....	453
Chorluli Aali Pasha.....	450
Sheikh Murad Effendi.....	546
Hajji Beshi Agha	219
Servili College, Head Butcher Mustafa Aga	297
Chelebi Abdullah Agha	296
Eyoob, Mahrushah Valideh Sultan	287
Mehemed Aga Mosque	210
Omar Effendi	147
Musih Aali Pasha	158
Elhaj Mustafa Effendi.....	135
Tevfik Effendi	481
Cazasker Mustafa Effendi	194
Suliha Khanum	273
Sultan Ahmed Mosque, sundry donations	1,373

* Heuschling says that the number of MSS. is 9,000, and of Books 1,500.

† Heuschling says 1,527.

VII.—*Orthodox Instruction in the Turkish Provinces.*

Extract from the report of Mr. Vice-Consul Blunt, for the district of Adrianople, 2nd April, 1867:—

“Before the Crimean war the education of the Christian inhabitants was generally under the control and patronage of the Greek clergy. This clergy is very ignorant, and it had a great interest in trying to keep the people ignorant. They, therefore, instead of patronising and encouraging intellectual culture, did all they could to keep it down to the lowest possible level, particularly among the Bulgarians, whose language they banished from the few schools that then existed in the country. But since then, and more especially from the time the Bulgarians, owing to the misconduct of this clergy, have broken their connection with the Greek Patriarchate, the extension of public education has, comparatively speaking, become very general throughout the provinces.

“There are now schools in every town, and in almost every village inhabited by the Christians. In the villages and smaller towns the system of instruction is of the simplest kind, but on the whole conformable to the nature and pursuits of the people. In the cities and larger towns, with the exception of Adrianople, where the schools of the Christians are very shamefully neglected by the community, there are elementary schools as well as gymnasia, in which Lancaster’s monitorial system generally prevails. In Philippopolis, for instance, the Greek and Bulgarian communities have very good schools; and the people contribute liberally towards their support. The professors are paid from 100*l.* to 200*l.* per annum. The Ottoman authorities always attend the annual examinations held at these schools.

“The education of the gentle sex is now cared for. At Philippopolis in 1860 there was only one pianoforte; there are now more than twenty. There, and in other towns, schools exist for girls, under the direction of teachers from Greece, Servia, Russia, and America. In Eski-Zagra the American Protestant missionaries have a school, attended by fifty Bulgarian girls, many of them the children of notables.

“The Ottoman authorities do nothing to arrest this educational movement; on the contrary, they endeavour to assist it. The following is a list of the Bulgarians now in the Government universities at Constantinople:—

	Bulgarians.
Galata Sarai, military university for medicine	18
„ civil university for medicine and chemistry	20
Military staff college	6
„ at Paris	4
	—
	48
	—

“Before the Crimean war there were, I believe, only three Bulgarians in the Government universities. All the Christian students admitted to these universities are maintained at the

Government expense, and those who graduate from them are immediately employed in public offices. The civil university for medicine and chemistry has been recently opened, I am told.

“The inclosed is a translated copy of an encyclical letter on the subject, addressed by the Metropolitan of Adrianople to the Greek clergy in his diocese.

“In the military college at Adrianople there are six Christian students as boarders, maintained at the Government expense. I have often spoken with some of them. They told me that they were well treated, and on the same footing with their fellow-students, composed of Turks, Tartars, Circassians, and Arabs. They, moreover, assured me that no attempts have ever been made by the professors or Mahomedan students to induce them to abjure their religion. A few years ago the only papers that were received at Adrianople, Philippopolis, and other towns were the ‘Djeridei Havadis’ by the Turks, and the ‘Byzantis’ and ‘Svetovid’ by the Greeks and Bulgarians, besides some inflammatory pamphlets from Athens, Odessa, and Belgrade. Very few, from the pasha down to the ‘bakal’ (grocer), took any interest in what was published in the papers on the state of the empire or the world in general. How different the case is now! No one who does not come into constant contact with all classes of the population can fully realise the change.

“Many copies of the Turkish, Greek, Bulgarian, Jewish, Armenian, and French papers published daily and weekly at Constantinople, Smyrna, and other places in the empire, are now received in all the towns of the vilayet. Most of these papers are read with interest; some do a great deal of good; some much harm; but on the whole they have made the people advance somewhat further upon the march of intellect, and are much contributing to the removal of old-fashioned notions of right and wrong, both among Christians and Mahomedans. The Greek clergy and the ulemas are losing their influence and prestige; a spirit of inquiry is alive and active among the people, and a new power is growing in the country—public opinion.”

STATISTICS of SUMS GIVEN by NATIVE GENTRY in INDIA for CHARITABLE and EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS and for WORKS of PUBLIC UTILITY. By COLONEL W. H. SYKES, M.P., F.R.S.

[Read before Section F, British Association, at Nottingham, August, 1866.]

I HAD proposed embracing the last ten years in my review of the liberal contributions of native gentry in India for charitable purposes or objects of public utility; but in going over the list, I found it was more extensive than was necessary to afford illustrations of the singularly unprejudiced feelings with which native gentlemen, alien to the British in origin, and destitute of common sympathies in social life or religious sentiments, had opened their purses for the promotion of objects which were entirely of a European character, even to the restoration of the spire of a Protestant church, the donation of a clock for a church, and the completion of the memorial church at Colaba, in Bombay, which had been interrupted from failure of funds. The natives of India had always been characterised for their charity, with a certainty, permanency, and amount, which to this day has rendered a poor law in India unnecessary. An outlay of money, therefore, in this direction was to be expected; but to find native gentlemen distinguishing themselves in a spontaneous princely munificence for objects associated with the habits of their foreign rulers, is a feature not less creditable and honourable to them than complimentary and satisfactory to the British Government. The late Sir Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy, Bart., and a member of the Parsee community, out of his private fortune, contributed not less than half a million of money for the endowment of hospitals on the European system, the foundation of schools and collegiate establishments, supply of water to towns, and other similar public objects, and his sons are treading in his steps. But this liberal spirit is not confined to the Parsee class of the community. Hindoos, Jains, Mahomedans, and native Jews have equally distinguished themselves, as I will now show, in a running comment upon the contributions of individual gentlemen for various purposes. For the reason previously assigned, however, I shall confine myself to two years, the contributions made in 1862 and 1863, before the plethora of money in Bombay from cotton speculations.

Donations, Gifts, Endowments, &c., by Natives for Educational, Hospital, or other Public Purposes.

Authority.	Date.	Name.	Place.	Amount.	Object.
"Overland Friend of India"	1862.	A Hindoo merchant.....	Bombay ..	Rs.	Prize for essays on the Vedas
"	July 22	Rustomjee Jeebhoy	Demaren ..	Not named	Erecting hall for literary and other purposes
"	" 23	Mungullass Nathoobhoy	Bombay ..	20,000	{ Travelling fellowship in connection with University of Bombay
"	Sept. 8	David Sassoon	Poona	50,000	Building hospital
"	Nov. 24	"	"	100,000	Endowment of hospital
"Bombay Gazette"	" 26	Merwanjee Framjee.....	Bombay ..	16,000	Establishing fund for relief of indigent Parsees
"Poona Observer"	Dec. 11	David Sassoon	Poona	40,000	Building synagogue
"Overland Friend of India"	1863.	Moulvee Abdool Lutef	Calcutta ..	Not named	Establishing society for promoting literary objects
"	April 7	Sorabjee Pestonjee Framjee	Bombay ..	5,500	Donation to D. Sassoon's school, and other objects
"	May 11	Cowasjee Jehanguee	"	7,000	Erecting fountain opposite cathedral
"	" 18	Total *	—	234,000	
"Times of India" (Bombay Saturday Review).....	Jan. 31	Cowasjee Jehanguee	Bombay ..	5,000	{ To enable Dr. Birdwood to complete the Oriental literary class of the Asiatic library
"Times of India" (Summachar Durpan).....	Feb. 12	Kuroundass Mahadwadass	Guzerat ..	Dollars 1,000	{ Relief of families who have suffered in consequence of the war
"	April 13	Cursetjee Nussurwanjee Cama ..	Mhow	Rs.	Establishing school
"	" 13	Cowasjee Jehanguee	Bombay ..	1,000	Constructing eye hospital
"	May 14	"	"	50,000	Erecting university buildings (Elphinstone College)
"Times of India" (Bombay Saturday Review).....	June 6	"	"	100,000	Lighting Churchgate Street, Bombay
"Times of India" (Jame Jamshed).....	" 10	Rustomjee Jamsetjee	Guzerat ..	Not named	{ Education in Guzerat
"	" 10	Cursetjee Furdonjee Parikh	"	100,000	Establishing school
"	" 10	Manockjee Petit	Coodsud ..	50,000	Contribution for English school
"	" 10	"	Bulsar	10,000	Building for
"	" 10	"	"	Not named	For Strangers' Home
"	July 9	Cowasjee Jehanguee	Bombay ..	50,000 to 100,000	To establish school for teaching Parsee girls English
"	" 9	Manockjee Cursetjee, judge	"	4,000	
"	" 9	Total *	—	371,000	

NOTE.—*English School for Native Girls*.—In addition to the sum of Rs. 22,000 which we announced in our issue of the 13th instant as having been contributed to a fund for establishing an English school for native girls in Bombay, the following amounts have been subscribed:—Mr. Prenchund Roychund, Rs. 5,000; the Honourable Premabhoj Henabhoj, Rs. 3,000; "Daughter of a Friend of Female Education," Rs. 1,400; "A Friend" (Mr. Kuroundass Mahadwadass), Rs. 2,500; the Sassoon family, Rs. 5,000; and Mr. D. Byramjee, Rs. 2,500. The fund now amounts to Rs. 41,400. Here is a Jain, a Hindoo, a Jew, and a Parsee united in a common object of practical good, but of an unusual character.

* Total of the specified amounts only.

But the tide of native liberality was not at its flood. To the munificent donations that had been made within a few weeks to the local and other charities of Bombay, there are now to be added the following:—

	Rupees.*
<i>To the Strangers' Friend Society—</i>	
Ardaseer Eduljee Chenoy, Esq.	1,000
M. Nusserwanjee Bhownnugguree, Esq.	2,500
<i>To the Society of St. Vincent de Paul—</i>	
M. Nusserwanjee Bhownnugguree, Esq.	300
Sorabjee Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy, Esq.	700
<i>To the Asiatic Home, London—</i>	
Karsundas Madhowdas, Esq., and Cousin.....	10,000

It is a gratifying feature in all these cases, that no appeal had been made to give them publicity; but the editors of the papers did not feel it right that they should pass unnoticed. A few days subsequently, also, a subscription of not less than Rs. 80,000 was raised at once, upon the representation to a few native gentlemen of the distressed condition of the Madras weavers. The donors were as follows:—

	Rupees.
<i>For the Madras Weavers, 5th September, 1863—</i>	
Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy, Bart.	} 25,000
Honourable Mr. Rustomjee Jamsetjee	
Cursetjee Furdonjee, Esq.	
Honourable Mr. Sunkersett	5,000
Merwanjee Framjee Panday, Esq.	5,000
Cowasjee Jehangee, Esq.	5,000
Cursetjee Nusserwanjee Cama, Esq.	5,000
M. Nusserwanjee Bhownnuggree	5,000
Premchund Roychund, Esq.	5,000
Sorabjee Pestonjee Framjee, Esq.	5,000
Byramjee Hormusjee Cama, Esq.	5,000
Kursondass Madhavadas, Esq.	3,000
M. and B. C. Cama and Co.	2,000
Honourable Mr. Premabhacoe	3,000
Munguldass Nathoobhoy, Esq.	5,000
	<hr/>
	78,000

The subscription list for this last purpose was in the hands of Messrs. Ritchie, Stewart, and Co., and it was hoped that some of the leading European houses would supplement the list liberally. Madras had shown herself so backward in this matter, that it was desirable Bombay should remind her of the distress she is doing little or nothing to relieve. There is great distress amongst the weavers of Conjeveram and other districts of that Presidency; and

* Rupee = 2s.; hence by striking off the last cipher from any sum expressed in rupees, its equivalent in pounds sterling is found.

in the sympathy for the operatives in Lancashire, it would surely be unbecoming to lose sight of the sufferings of the native weavers of India. All honour to the gentlemen who so nobly commenced this movement, which was commended very earnestly to the support of the great European firms. The form the relief should take was discussed. In case Madras contrived to raise an equal sum as Bombay, the Government no doubt would double the amount, to be applied as the local committees might suggest. It was proposed to bring a large body of these weavers round to Bombay, for employment in the mills.

Strangers' Home.

The Europeans of Bombay projected a Strangers' Home for the accommodation and relief of European vagrants. No call had been made on the natives for contributions, but Mr. Cowasjee Jehangee Readymoney came forward spontaneously with a donation of 50,000 rupees for the erection of the building. There is no parallel at the present day to the munificence of this liberal Parsee. Mr. Cowasjee, is childless, and has adopted the public as his heir.

Illuminated Clock Tower.

David Sassoon, a Jew, presented Rs. 20,000 for an illuminated clock tower, to be placed at the entrance of the Victoria Gardens, Bombay.

Fountain.

A fountain was built by public subscription at the head of the "Apollo Bunder," in honour of the Duke of Wellington.

Gift to the Prince and Princess of Wales.

A subscription was opened for the purpose of presenting the Prince and Princess (of Wales) with a collection of some of the choicest products of Indian art and industry. Loyal Bombay showed itself ambitious to take her part in making the gift to the Prince and Princess a splendid offering worthy of India's wealth and fame.

To save the city of Bombay from utter darkness, the public-spirited townsman, Mr. Cowasjee Jehanghee, obtained permission from the municipality to light Churchgate Street from the church gate to the Elphinstone Circle, at his own expense. This is the first introduction of lighting streets in Bombay. It was hoped the example would induce the municipality to light the streets and roads of the island at their own cost.

The private charities of one son of Sir Jamsetjee (Honourable Mr. Rustomjee) in the last few years were estimated at from 60,000*l.* to 100,000*l.*

Mr. Bhugwandass Purshotumdass made a very liberal donation of Rs. 10,000 to the University of Bombay, for the exclusive purpose of encouraging the study of Sanscrit. Mr. Bhugwandass had also subscribed a sum of Rs. 1,000 to the "Alexandria Native "Girls' School" for English, which has since been opened by Mr. Maneckjee Cursetjee; and Mrs. Bhugwandass had bestowed on the proposed school a 5 per cent. Government promissory note for Rs. 2,000, for the purpose of awarding annually out of the interest a medal in the name of Mrs. Bhugwandass, to the meritorious and deserving girls.

David Sassoon, Esq., in addition to founding a General Hospital at Poona, had, with characteristic liberality, placed a sum of 25,000 rupees at the disposal of the committee for the establishment there of an asylum for such persons as were, owing to bodily defects and infirmities, unable to earn their livelihood. Mr. Sassoon, though not a native of India, has expended in the Bombay Presidency, during his residence there, upwards of one hundred thousand pounds in various acts of benevolence; and his excellent example has of late been followed by a few others.

Lifeboat in England, 2,000l.

An eminent Parsee merchant firm in the city of London has presented a sum of 2,000l. to the Royal National Lifeboat Association, through its chairman, Thomas Baring, Esq., M.P., to enable it to form a lifeboat establishment on the English coast, and permanently to uphold it.

A representation having been made to some of the leading native firms in Bombay, of the distressed condition of the Madras weavers, the sum of 80,000 rupees was subscribed in a few days, the Jeejeebhoyas heading the subscription list with the munificent donation of Rs. 25,000. Two, three, and five thousand rupees were the amounts respectively contributed by a dozen other houses. Then Karsundas Madhowdas, Esq., a Jain, remitted ten thousand rupees to the Asiatic Home, in Poplar, London; and Nusserwanjee Bhownugguree, Esq., presented 250l. to the Strangers' Friend Society.

The Honourable Mr. Jugonath Sunkersett, a Hindoo, expressed his intention of contributing Rs. 5,000 worth of botanical, geological, and other works on natural history, to the Bombay branch of the Royal Asiatic Society. Rs. 5,000 worth of books on history and political economy were also expected from another native gentleman. Cowasjee Jehanghee's presentation (Rs. 5,000 of Oriental works) will, it is hoped, arrive in a month or two. Some time ago a road was proposed from Poona to Parbuttee, and the Honourable Jugonath Sunkersett at once offered to construct it,

*Native Benefactions, 1863—Contd.*THE HON. RUSTOMJEE JAMSETJEE JEEJEBHOY, *a Parsee.*

	Rupees.
Promotion of education in Guzerat.....	1,00,000
Madras weavers	8,333
Bombay native general library	2,000
For the education of five native barristers	1,50,000
Catholic orphanages	200
Victoria Gardens	1,000
	<hr/>
	2,61,533

The honourable gentleman has given large sums in private charity during his tour through Guzerat, of which there is no record.

MR. CURSETJEE FURDOONJEE PARUCK, *a Parsee.*

	Rupees.
Promotion of education in Guzerat.....	50,000
Madras weavers	8,333
Native general library	2,000
Catholic orphanages	200
Professorship of economic science	75,000
Victoria Gardens	20,000
Fountain, Victoria Gardens	30,000
	<hr/>
	1,85,533

This gentleman has also given large sums in private charity in his tour through Guzerat with the Honourable Mr. Rustomjee, of which there is no record.

MR. DAVID SASSOON, *a Jew.*

	Rupees.
Illuminated clock tower, Victoria Gardens	20,000
A charity house in Poona	25,000
A hospital in Poona	1,50,000
'Building for Bombay mechanics' institution	60,000
Sufferers from cholera in Poona	1,000
Victoria Gardens	1,000
	<hr/>
	2,57,000

THE HON. JUGUNNATHJEE SUNKERSETT, *a Hindoo.*

Madras weavers	5,000
Books to the Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society	5,000
Native general library	1,000
Victoria Gardens	1,000
Catholic orphanages	200
	<hr/>
	12,200

THE HON. PREMABHOY HEMABHOY, *a Jain.*

Madras weavers	5,000
Native general library	1,000
	<hr/>
	6,000

*Native Benefactions, 1863—Contd.*MR. BHUGWANDASS PURSHOTUMDASS, *a Hindoo.*

	Rupees.
Various charities in Poona	8,000
A Sanscrit library	1,00,000
„ scholarship in the Bombay University	10,000
Native general library	1,000
Victoria Gardens	500
	<hr/>
	1,19,500
	<hr/>

MR. SORABJEE PESTONJEE FRAMJEE, *a Parsee.*

Distributed among his relative, servants, and others	2,00,000
Madras weavers	5,000
Society of St. Vincent de Paul	1,000
University scholarships	1,00,000
Victoria Gardens	5,000
	<hr/>
	3,11,000
	<hr/>

MR. SORABJEE JAMSETJEE JEJEEBHOY, *a Parsee.*

Society of St. Vincent de Paul	700
Native general library	1,500
Catholic orphanages	2,000
	<hr/>
	4,200
	<hr/>

MR. MUNGULDASS NUTHOOBHOY, *a Jain.*

Madras weavers	5,000
Native general library	500
Victoria Gardens	15,000
	<hr/>
	20,500
	<hr/>

MESSRS. CAMA AND Co., of Bombay and London, *Parsees.*

University College Hospital, London	10,000
„ London	30,000
The Royal National Lifeboat Institution	20,000
Victoria Gardens	1,000
University scholarship	15,000
Encouragement of education in England	15,000
	<hr/>
	91,000
	<hr/>

MR. MERWANJEE NUSSERWANJEE BHOWNUGGREE, *a Parsee.*

Native general library	800
The Strangers' Friend Society	2,500
„ Society of St. Vincent de Paul	500
„ Madras weavers	5,000
	<hr/>
	8,800
	<hr/>

*Native Benefactions, 1863—Contd.*MR. KURSONDAS MADHEWDAS, *a Hindoo.*

	Rupees.
Victoria Gardens	500
The Asiatic Home, London	10,000
„ Madras weavers	3,000
Native general library	500
Relief of sufferers in American war	10,000
	<hr/>
	24,000

MR. CURSETJEE NUSSERWANJEE CAMA, *a Parsee.*

For class of Parsee girl teachers	10,000
The Madras weavers	5,000
Catholic orphanages	200
	<hr/>
	15,200

MR. BYRAMJEE HORMUSJEE CAMA, *a Parsee.*

The Madras weavers	5,000
„ Native general library	1,000
Fort gratuitous dispensary	11,000
Catholic orphanages	50
	<hr/>
	17,050

General Subscriptions.

Subscriptions in behalf of Bhimjee Jeewanjee, a bone setter	45,000
Mr. Khursedji Furdoonji Parekh, for a school of industry } at Surat	50,000
The same gentleman, for a dhurumshala near the railway } station at Surat	15,000
The same gentleman, for grain to be distributed among the } poor of Surat	5,000
Mr. Sorabji Jamsetji Jeejeebhai, for a building for the high } school at Surat	50,000
Mr. Premchand Raechand, for a girls' school at Surat.....	12,500
The same gentleman, for a dharamshala at Surat	35,000
The same gentleman, for a public garden at Surat and a } large piece of land.....	5,000
The Honourable Premabhai Hemabhai, for the girls' school } at Surat	500
Mr. Kahandas Narandas, for the girls' school at Surat.....	500
Mr. Burjorji Mehrwanji, of Surat, for an English branch } school for the Parsees of Surat	3,000
The Alexandra Native Girls' English Institution	58,000
Mr. Cursetjee Rustomjee Cama, to the funds of the Parsee } Girls' School Association	12,000
Mr. Limjee and Mr. Cowasjee Manockjee, for an annual } gold medal in connection with the Bombay University....	5,000
The relatives of Mr. Muncherjee Jamshedjee Wadia, on } the death of his widow, to several local charities	19,000
Mr. Homejee Cursetjee Dady, for an annual prize to the } Bombay University	500
	<hr/>
	3,16,000

Church Clock and Repair of Church.

The "Bombay Gazette."—States that "Mr. Cowasjee Jehangee has placed the sum of Rs. 7,500 at the disposal of the Rev. Mr. Maule to pay the cost of erecting an illuminated clock on the tower of St. John's Church, Colaba. He has further expressed his willingness to furnish money to the extent of Rs. 25,000 towards completing the church. Meanwhile the matter has been referred to Government. We cannot but admire the munificence of Mr. Cowasjee in this, as in so many other of his public benefactions, but, we think, it is something of a reflection on Christian liberality, to say the least, that a Parsee's liberality should also be needed in such a matter.

"The offer was made in the following shape:—

To the Chief Secretary to the Government of Bombay.

"SIR,—I understand that sufficient funds have been raised lately for the completion of St. John's Church in Colaba, with the exception of the sum required for the steeple. The church is built, I believe, as a memorial of the English soldiers who fell in the Cabul war; and although native gentlemen have not been invited to subscribe thereto, it occurs to me as possible that Government will not refuse a donation from me for the purpose of erecting the spire.

"I am told the steeple will be an important landmark to mariners, and on this ground alone I should gladly defray the cost of its erection, while I cannot but remember also, that many thousands of my own countrymen perished in the disastrous Affghan war.

"I think it very desirable also, as there is no public timepiece in Colaba, that an illuminated clock should be placed in the tower; and I beg, therefore, to propose that a clock and spire should be provided, and the cost defrayed jointly by the Government and myself in equal proportions. In making this proposal, I assume that the cost of both will not exceed 15,000 rupees (fifteen thousand), of which amount I am willing to subscribe 7,500 rupees (seven thousand five hundred).

"I have the honour to be, Sir,

"Your most obedient servant,

"8th August, 1863.

"COWASJEE JEHANGEE."

"The Rev. Mr. Maule achieved by his perseverance, what his predecessors either never attempted, or failed in attempting. Owing to this gentleman's exertions, it is understood that the whole 50,000 or 60,000 rupees required to complete the church have been at last obtained."

David Sassoon.

"The Friend of China," Tuesday, 10th January, 1865.—States in regard to one of the great donors, "Bombay has lost one of its most energetic, wealthy, public-spirited and benevolent citizens. The venerable David Sassoon, head of the Jewish community of Western India, and a merchant prince of world-wide reputation, died in the city of Poona on the 5th instant. In personal appearance, in private character, and in public life, David Sassoon was a most remarkable man. Everything in his outward man heightened his dignity of presence; he walked 'the prince and the great man in Israel' that he really was. He possessed the most complete command over himself, and had formed the strictest habits of life and of business; in energy and perseverance he was as much more conspicuous than others as in his Saul-like stature. In public life he was ever foremost to engage in any enterprise that promised to promote the welfare of his fellow men, to improve the city in which he dwelt, and to extend the commerce of the east; he had a large heart, and his liberality and benevolence were well proportioned to his colossal wealth. It would not be easy to enumerate even his public benefactions; he founded the industrial school and reformatory in Bombay which bears his name, by a gift of the premises and a donation of Rs. 50,000; he built a Jewish synagogue in Bombay, and endowed a school in connection with it, both

of which are ornaments to the city, at a cost of Rs. 2,00,000; a magnificent general hospital is now in course of construction in Poona, for which he contributed the sum of Rs. 1,85,000; and towards a charity house for the infirm, in that city, he contributed Rs. 25,000; he gave Rs. 60,000 to build a mechanics' institute in Bombay; Rs. 20,000 for a clock tower in the New Victoria and Albert Garden; he subscribed yearly the sum of Rs. 50,000 for the maintenance of poor Jews in Bombay, Jerusalem, Bagdad, Bussora, and other places in which he was interested. But these benefactions, amounting to nearly Rs. 7,00,000, are far from exhausting even his public charities, while his private charity flowed in constant streams, and it is believed aggregated far more than his public benefactions."

Many of the above munificent donations for charitable and public objects were made before the merchants of Bombay found themselves with a plethora of money from success in the cotton speculations. The following donations were made when private treasuries were full to overflowing:—

"Bombay Times," 13th to 28th March, 1865.—States "the liberality of the Jamsetjee family seems to flow with a deep and continuous current. The School of Arts, founded by the late baronet, and which, it is expected, will soon be developed in a very efficient practical form, has just received the following additional endowments:—From the Dowager Lady Jamsetjee, Rs. 150,000; from her daughter, Rs. 15,000; and from the Honourable Mr. Rustomjee, Rs. 55,000; in all two lakhs and twenty thousand rupees."

The "Friend of India."—States "Mr. Premchund Roychund's gift of two lakhs of rupees to the University of Calcutta, announced on Saturday by the vice-chancellor, is most opportune. The money was entrusted to the Honourable Mr. Anderson to be spent on some public object in Calcutta, and he has shown the discrimination which was to be expected of him in selecting the university. The fact that, in spite of many eloquent appeals, this is the first endowment offered to the university, is another of those commentaries on the selfish apathy of the Bengali millionaires, which we have now come to accept as ineradicable. Yet surely men who count their Government paper in bundles of eighty lakhs, and spend more on a single marriage than the Jain speculator has given, will be stirred up by this example. The university has not even a mace for its senate, and all its arrangements are destitute of either dignity or pomp. The building promised by Government is as yet only spoken of. It will fall to the senate to decide on the object to which this endowment is to be devoted. Their own recommendation, that a chair of physical science should be established in the new building for all the neighbouring colleges, they will now be able to carry out. No mere official difficulties as to the supervision of the professor should prevent this. The syndicate can well appoint him and inspect his work, without raising the question as to how the Government of India, which has no educational department, can do so."

The "Bombay Times" states that "Mr. Merwanjee Framjee Panday, broker to Messrs. Campbell, Mitchell, and Co., has contributed one lac of rupees, with the object of providing house accommodation at reasonable rents for Zoroastrians residing at Bombay. This donation was made on Thursday last, at the performance of the third day's funeral ceremonies consequent upon the death of Mr. Marwanjee's mother. Trustees have been nominated to take charge of the above sum, with instructions to purchase extensive lots of land in Girgaum, Grant Road, or the Bellasis and Faulkland Roads, to build chawls and houses thereon, and to re-sell the land in small portions, or the houses separately, at cost price, to Parsees only. The trustees are to purchase and re-sell lands and houses according to their discretion, until the whole fund of one lac of rupees shall have been expended. At the performance of the ceremony in question, the relatives of the deceased lady contributed an aggregate sum of Rs. 81,475 for various charitable and religious purposes."

“ In accordance with a well-known Parsee custom, Mr. Jamshedjee Pallonjee, and other members of his family, have, on the occasion of their mother's death, subscribed Rs. 5,000 to the following charitable institutions:—Rs. 600 to the Surat Poor Zoroastrians' Burial Fund; Rs. 500 to the Bombay Poor Zoroastrians' Burial Fund; Rs. 900 to the Fort Gratuitous Dispensary's general fund; Rs. 1,000 to the Zoroastrians' Girls Schools general fund; Rs. 1,000 for a ‘Mithiby Pallonje Capudias’ prize—Mithiby being the name of the deceased lady—to be awarded annually from the interest in the ‘Mulla Eirouz Mudresha,’ for the best Guzerathi essay on some Zoroastrian religious subject; and Rs. 1,000 for a ‘Mithiby Pallonjee Capudias’ prize, to be awarded every year from the interest, to any native girl in the Alexandra Native Girls' English Institution, for the best English essay on any social or moral subject.”

Casting our eyes over the preceding details, we see that Sorabjee Pestanjee Framjee, a Parsee and fire-worshipper, makes a donation of Rs. 5,500 to a school founded by David Sassoon, a native Jew. Cowajee Jehangee, a Parsee, gives Rs. 7,000 for erecting fountains opposite the English cathedral; the same munificent Parsee gives Rs. 50,000 to build an eye hospital for sufferers of every creed, and Rs. 100,000, or 10,000*l.*, for additional buildings for the Elphinstone College, and Rs. 50,000 to Rs. 100,000 for a Strangers' Home! Kursundas Mahadewdas, a Jain, gives Rs. 10,000 to the Asiatic Home in London, the refugees in which are almost exclusively Mahomedan Lascars, from ships engaged in the India trade, who are fanatics against all other religions than that of Mahomet. Many Hindoos and Parsees also make donations to this “Home” for Asiatics. The Parsee, Cowasjee Jehangee, gives Rs. 7,500 for an illuminated clock in the steeple of St. John's Church, Colaba, when completed; and he offers to share with the Government the expense to complete the steeple. Other Parsees gave donations to Catholic orphanages, and Sorabjee Pestanjee Framjee gave Rs. 1,000 to the Society of St. Vincent de Paul. Religious tolerance cannot go further than this.

But I must not omit to dwell on a novel and highly praiseworthy feature in native liberality; the more praiseworthy and the more remarkable as it is absolutely in conflict with ancestral prejudices and the social habits of the well-to-do classes of all religious denominations in India, I mean the education of girls and the introduction of females into native society. The social position of females in India from all times has been little better than that of animal existence within their domestic walls. Happily Mr. Drinkwater Bethune, in Bengal, and Mr. Mansejee Cursetjee, an enlightened Parsee, in Bombay, benevolently endeavoured to move the native community, and with some success, to give females some education, with a view to make them intellectual companions. As Mr. Bethune's efforts took place anterior to the period to which I have limited myself in this paper, I shall only notice the donations to female schools in Western India in 1862-63. Mr. Manockjee

Cursetjee had given his daughters an English education, with the usual female accomplishments, and his example seems to have had a good effect upon the Parsee community to which he belongs, and which extended ultimately to liberal Hindoos. It will be seen by the preceding statements that Mr. Manockjee Cursetjee contributed Rs. 4,000 to the formation of girls' schools in Bombay. Mr. Premchand Raechand, a Hindoo, gave Rs. 12,500 for a girls' school at Surat; and two other Hindoos gave donations for the same purpose; and the Sassoon family of Jews gave Rs. 5,000; and E. N. Cama, a Parsee, Rs. 12,000; and the amount contributed in Bombay alone exceeded Rs. 70,000. Here we have Parsees, Hindoos, and Jews contributing to a common object which will ultimately revolutionise the social position of females in India. From the public press we learn that these efforts are not confined to Bengal and Western India, but that the Sikh chieftains in the Punjab are promoting female education with marvellous zeal and effect. A better time is coming for women in India.

The preceding facts, illustrating the character of the native mind in India, will, I trust, have a due effect upon their governors both in India and England; and in the course of time raise a livelier feeling of interest in the welfare and happiness of two hundred millions of human beings placed by Providence, for good or for evil, under British control, than is usually manifested in England.

On ARBITRATION in the HOSIERY TRADES of the MIDLAND COUNTIES.
By E. RENALS, ESQ., of the "Daily Express," Nottingham.

[Read before Section F, British Association, Dundee, September, 1867.]

THE establishment of a Board of Arbitration and Conciliation in connection with the hosiery manufacture of the midland counties, has proved so beneficial in its operation on the relations between employers and workmen in this important branch of national industry, that a review of the circumstances under which it was originated, and a summary of the results by which it has been attended, cannot but prove interesting to those persons who watch with some degree of solicitude for any means whereby the difficulties which beset the associations of capital and labour may be fully and satisfactorily solved. For if the principles of arbitration and conciliation have been successfully applied to the prevention of disputes and the settlement of differences in a manufacture which includes so many varieties of goods, from the coarse cotton fabrics which clothe the lowliest sons of toil, to the fine and costly articles which are purchased exclusively by the high-born and the wealthy, the rate of wages varying with the skill of the workmen, then it must be obvious that the extension of similar boards to all other fields of industry, is simply a question to be determined by the employers and workmen themselves; for difficulty of adjustment can no longer be pleaded as any excuse for deferring the adoption of the principle of arbitration in the settlement of trade disputes, after the last six years' experience in the hosiery manufacture of the midland counties.

The history of the hosiery manufacture during the last half century may be described as one continued struggle on the part of the operatives to improve their condition. In some one or other branch of the trade, in the course of this long period, the disputes were more or less protracted, according to the demand which existed for the particular class of goods, or the ability of the workmen employed in the other departments of the manufacture to assist them. Thus there have been an ever-recurring series of strikes on the part of the operatives, or a refusal to pay the price required, and therefore a withholding of the material on the part of the employers; so that the workmen in employment have been continually called upon to support their fellow-operatives who had either turned out for an advance of wages, or for the purpose of

resisting a reduction in the rate of payment. As far back as 1819, attempts were made to draw up a statement of prices for each description of work, and in that year a "schedule of prices" was agreed to by the manufacturers and the operatives, but it gradually fell through from a want of mutual co-operation. Since that period, many attempts have been made to establish a statement of prices in each branch, but, up to the time when the board of arbitration was formed, all these endeavours had proved abortive, and no permanent benefit accrued either to the manufacturers or to the workmen.

The present paper refers to the hand-loom framework knitters scattered over the counties of Nottingham, Derby, and the south side of Leicester up to Loughborough. It has been calculated that there are 24,000 frames, the men employed in which supply an equal number of women and children with work, either in "seaming," that is connecting the goods made, or in winding the yarns required for them. These "hands," as they are technically termed in the trade, obtain the material—merino, cotton, or silk yarns—from the warehouses of the manufacturers, and make it up according to order, either in their own homes, or in rooms in the various towns and villages in which, for convenience, a number of frames are placed, ranging from four to twenty. These stocking frames, for the most part, are the property of the manufacturer, but they are sometimes rented by him, and in either case, a small sum is deducted from the earnings of each operative as rent. To facilitate business transactions, as well as to economise the time and labour of his clerks and warehousemen, the manufacturer frequently entrusts to one man, who is in consequence denominated a middleman, the cotton or silk required by all the hands employed in one of these rooms; and when the work is completed, he takes it to the warehouse, and draws the sum due to the whole of the hands, receiving a slight percentage for his trouble. Thus the difficulties which surrounded the project of a board of arbitration and conciliation, in its conception and realisation, may be partially estimated by keeping in view these circumstances: the variety of goods manufactured; the different prices paid for each article, according to the quality of the material and the extra work required to be put into it; the obstacles to communicating with workmen so scattered as are the framework knitters of the midland counties; and the opposition which had to be encountered from those who were interested in the maintenance of a state of things which enabled them to carry on a system of truck with the hands for whom they were entrusted with the material supplied by the manufacturer, or to exact more from them as allowance for taking in the work than they were entitled to receive.

The board of arbitration was formed in 1860, the first formal meeting of manufacturers and workmen having been held on the 3rd of December, and, as may be supposed from the preceding observations, its early history was beset with difficulties which required no ordinary patience and prudence to grapple with and overcome. The immediate cause of its formation was a strike for an advance of wages by the hands employed in one branch of the manufacture, the operatives at work in the other departments contributing a certain sum per loom towards their support. In this emergency two courses were open to the manufacturers; they could either decline to supply any yarn to the whole body of their workmen, and in this way cut off the supplies devoted to the support of the hands on strike, which would have been, to all intents and purposes, a lockout; or they might give way to the combination of the operatives, and pay the increase of wages demanded of them, although the state of this particular branch of the trade would not, at the time, have justified them in acceding to it. This was a memorable crisis in the history of the hosiery manufacture, and it is undoubtedly one which may be looked back upon with feelings of satisfaction by all those persons who, during this notable struggle, conceived the idea of settling the dispute by conciliatory means, and ultimately succeeded in establishing a deliberative body for the determination of all future differences. Before resorting to a lockout of the hands employed in the branches still at work, the manufacturers sought a conference with the workmen, and, as is almost invariably the case, when two bodies of men whose interests are really identical come into contact with each other, the deliberations assumed a friendly character, a spirit of mutual forbearance was manifested on both sides, and the dispute was settled in an amicable manner. It was from this interview, and under these circumstances, that the board of arbitration and conciliation was first organised, although the minds of both manufacturers and workmen had been previously prepared, by the bitter experience of past years, for this plan of settling trade disputes. From March, 1862, to January, 1865, however, although the board was in existence, it was not deemed necessary to hold any formal general meetings, because the trade was in such a state of prostration that prices went down to their lowest level; and it is in busy seasons, when the demand is good, that all the influence of the board is required to adjust prices and prevent disputes. Since the latter date, however, the board has met whenever necessary; statements of prices have been drawn up and agreed to both by masters and workmen; differences have been settled as they have arisen, and, in fact, the rate of wages has been virtually fixed by the board, without any dissension whatever on the part of the workmen. The difficulties

with which the board has had to contend have not been caused by the operatives, but for the most part by the small manufacturers.

The board is composed of an equal number of manufacturers and workmen, the recognised basis of union being a mutual agreement to abide by its decisions. The former are nominated at a meeting of employers, and the latter are elected by the workmen in the branch which each represents. At the present time, the board consists of nine manufacturers and nine workmen. Its meetings are held once a-quarter, unless the business is of such a nature as to require the members to assemble more frequently. It has often been necessary for them to meet monthly and even fortnightly, but this has, no doubt, arisen to a certain extent from the pressure of circumstances incidental to the early stages of all organisations. The branches of manufacture represented are the shirts and drawers, rib-tops, three-frame half hose, gloves, wrought socks and half hose, rotary and circular hose, straight hose, made principally at Mansfield, and the three-frame half hose and lace ankle stockings, made chiefly at Sutton-in-Ashfield. In the rules provision is made for the equitable representation of manufacturers and operatives, so that if the number of delegates from the hands is augmented, the employers would be increased in a like proportion. Thus the equilibrium of interests is fairly maintained. All questions affecting the remuneration of labour in these branches are settled by the board—not by putting an end to disputes when they have arisen and created angry feelings between the employers and their workmen, but by preventing any difference that may have occurred from assuming such a character as to seriously interrupt the harmony which prevails amongst its members. Thus differences in the rate of payment for work which in so many trades lead to strikes and lockouts, with all the accompanying estrangement and bitterness of feeling, in the hosiery manufacture of the midland counties are checked in their incipient stages by mutual concession and discussion, and prevented breaking out into an open rupture. One important rule of the board is, that no advance or reduction in the rate of payment for work can take place without a month's notice being given. By this regulation, every alteration proposed is fully considered before being decided on. It is a significant fact, however, and at the same time a powerful argument in favour of this mutual interchange of thought and expression of views between the manufacturers and the representatives of the workmen, that the decisions of the board are generally arrived at without any vote being taken. Unanimity of opinion is obtained by friendly deliberation, and a mutual desire on the part of all to maintain the harmonious action of the board; and, in fact, the questions brought before the board are invariably decided without any vote being

taken. Indeed, there has not been a vote to determine any difference for the last two years. So long as the workmen themselves and a majority of the larger employers act cordially together, the decisions of the board are certain to be respected; for any smaller manufacturer who refuses to abide by the regulations laid down, must of course be beaten in a contest with the workmen who, supported by the influential portion of the trade, would either withdraw gradually, or in a body, from his employment.

The action of the board may be illustrated by its decisions in one or two applications recently made by the workmen. At a meeting held on the 15th of July last, a deputation from the workmen employed in what is technically termed the "old wrought hose" branch, appeared before the board and requested an advance in the rate of payment for the class of goods made by them, which, they stated, were paid on a lower scale than any similar articles in the trade. As the price of provisions had risen considerably, they urged that there was the greater need for their request being complied with. Now there was every disposition on the part of the board to concede this advance, because the request was based on a statement of prices which the manufacturers could examine for themselves. But it was at the same time felt by the board that in the present state of trade, and especially with a diminution in the demand for the description of goods referred to, any attempt to enforce an advance in the rate of wages would be useless, and result, probably, in a still further curtailment of production; and, therefore, whilst sympathising with the workmen, and acknowledging their request to be reasonable, its members informed the deputation that it would be inexpedient, even in the interest of the operatives themselves, to comply with the wish expressed; but that if the prospect of trade brightened towards October and November, they would reconsider the matter, and endeavour to meet the application. The deputation withdrew, satisfied with the assurance that the request would be impartially dealt with whenever a more prosperous time should arrive. On the same day another application was made by workmen employed in the neighbourhood of Loughborough, respecting a difference in the prices paid for "heel-ing" stockings; the rate per dozen varying from $\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $2d.$ in Nottingham, Mansfield, Loughborough, and Belper. They asked the board to sanction a uniform rate of payment. This request was followed by a discussion, the result being the adoption of a new scale of prices for the whole district; the secretary appointed by the workmen being authorised to get the statement printed and put into circulation, so that all the manufacturers might have a copy at an early date. These illustrations of the board's action might be multiplied indefinitely, but they are sufficient to show the hold

which it has obtained on the minds of the workmen as a means of remedying any grievances which they believe to exist, and to prove the obvious advantages to the manufacturer in securing something like a uniform rate of payment for labour. Another important feature in the constitution of the board, is the nomination of a committee of inquiry, composed of four members, to whom is referred questions regarding which the board is either not sufficiently informed, or which require the opinion of manufacturers who are more particularly affected by them, before proceeding to legislate respecting them. Within a year and a-half, fifteen questions of this character, formally brought before the board, have been referred to the committee of inquiry, or to other members of the board perhaps immediately connected with the workmen whose interests would be involved in any decision to which the board might come; whilst four or five times as many complaints have been investigated, and amicably adjusted, without being entered on the minutes. Thus a refusal by any manufacturer to pay the prices fixed in a statement drawn up under the sanction of the board, or a variation in the making of any article so as to avoid infringing the statement, whilst practically violating it, are left to be dealt with by the committee of inquiry, or by some member or members of the board specially nominated for this purpose, and the result is generally a satisfactory adjustment of the matter in dispute. Should there be a determination not to pay the prices allowed in the statement on the part of any manufacturer, then the pressure of the board, which is, in fact, the representative body of both employers and workmen, is brought to bear on him, and the operatives are directed not to take out material for work except on condition that the authorised price be paid. This is virtually a strike by the hands of an individual employer or firm; but it is essentially different to all other strikes in this important feature, that it is approved by a deliberative body, and supported by the combined influence of both masters and workmen. Happily, however, such instances of opposition to the decisions of the board are very rare indeed; and it is a relief to turn from them altogether, to a more pleasing instance of the power of mutual discussion and interchange of thought in the adjustment of trade differences. In July last, the workmen in one branch of the manufacture, who were not then represented on the board, held several meetings, with the view of framing a scale of prices without consulting the employers. Now it was obvious that such a proceeding, if allowed to go on, could only result in a protracted struggle in that department of the trade; and it was desirable, therefore, in the interests of all parties, to prevent the dispute assuming such a deplorable aspect. A small committee was accordingly appointed by the board

to meet delegates from the workmen employed in this branch. They assembled in the course of a few days, the matters in dispute were discussed, and ultimately the differences were settled to the satisfaction of the manufacturers and workmen; but, in order to prevent future disagreement, a statement of prices was ordered to be drawn up and submitted to the board of arbitration for approval. From these particulars it will be seen that three-fourths of the questions brought before the board are referred to the committee of inquiry, or to some special committee, and arranged without adjudication by the board.

It will not be without interest to specify some of the results which have followed the board as an organisation for the settlement, or rather for the prevention, of disputes in the hosiery trade. Its action has been in the highest degree pacific and beneficial—pacific as regards the growth and cultivation of mutual feelings of respect and confidence between employers and workmen—and beneficial in its bearing on the condition of the workmen themselves, by securing to them the highest rate of remuneration for their labour that can be obtained with advantage to the trade, without those struggles for increased wages which were formerly so frequently made at the sacrifice of many weeks' earnings. In all branches of the hosiery manufacture, the truck system, which more or less prevailed at the time the board was organised, and which repeated acts of parliament had failed entirely to suppress, has been completely rooted up by the influence of the board, and is no longer carried on to any perceptible extent. Capital and labour are brought into contact, and the representatives of each deliberate together on the best means of securing mutual prosperity. Confidence in the workmen is created, whilst the workmen themselves learn to respect the motives, and interpret aright the conduct of those for whom they labour.

One of the objections urged against boards of arbitration and conciliation, is the difficulty, if trammelled by an organisation, of adjusting the value of labour to the fluctuations of trade. It is often argued, in opposition to the establishment of these boards, that fluctuations in trade will naturally bring about a fall in prices, and that as the demand for labour relaxes, its rate of remuneration must in that degree be proportionately diminished. This argument is no doubt a sound one in itself, but it has no legitimate bearing adverse to the action of boards of arbitration and conciliation; for as no board can regulate the demand and supply of labour, so no board can permanently fix the rate of wages, which, of course, will vary with the demand for goods and the supply of labour. But it is in these periods of transition and alternation in trade that boards of arbitration and conciliation render the most essential services

for as a month's notice is required to be given in every application to the board either for an advance or alteration in any statement of prices, its members have an opportunity of advising with the workmen on the most desirable steps to be taken, and of pointing out the relative bearings of an advance in prices, or a diminution in the rate of production. Thus the conciliatory influence of the board is brought into full play, and the advice and decision of its members are carefully weighed and followed, even by those who at the time may perhaps disapprove of the course adopted. This has frequently been the case in the hosiery manufacture, and in this way difficulties have been overcome by the conciliatory action of the board, which otherwise might have involved one, or even all, the branches of the trade in a disastrous struggle.

The advantages resulting from the action of the board, as indicated in the previous observations, may be summed up in a few sentences. As relates to the workmen themselves, there is, first, a cessation of all ill-treatment and acts of intimidation by their fellow-workmen; second, there is the saving secured to the members by the abolition of the truck system, and regularity in the payment of wages; third, there is the saving effected in their contributions to the union, which, in itself, is equal to an advance of wages, for the payment is reduced from 6*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per week, to 1*s.* per annum; fourth, there are no stoppages of labour when the demand for manufactures is active; and fifth, there is a constant process of enlightenment on commercial and economical questions going on by means of discussion, and the frequent exhibition of articles manufactured by foreign nations which are competing with us in the world's markets. As regards the advantages to the employers, they are equally obvious. First, all contracts may be taken with confidence, because the delivery of the goods can be safely guaranteed, and thus orders are prevented being sent to other countries; second, machinery and capital are employed to the fullest advantage during periods of prosperity; third, there is uniformity in the rates of labour, so that any unscrupulous and oppressive employer is prevented from underselling a more liberal and humane manufacturer, and in this way bringing down wages to the lowest level compatible with the bare subsistence of the workmen; and fourth, there has been a discontinuance of those abusive attacks on employers which were formerly so frequent, not one having been published for more than seven years.

The influence exercised on other trades in the town and surrounding districts has been most important and salutary. In the lace manufacture of Nottingham, in which strikes and lockouts have proved so detrimental, a board is now being organised, and will probably be at work in the course of a month. In Leicester a

board has already been established for the settlement of disputes in the hosiery trade; and in Sheffield, a chamber of industry, on similar principles, is about to be founded, for the adjustment and prevention of disputes in the trades of that town.

It would not be right to conclude this paper without mentioning the persevering and devoted services which have been rendered in this cause by Mr. A. J. Mundella, a partner in one of the largest manufacturing establishments in Nottingham. It was at his suggestion, in the first instance, that the board was organised; and it has been mainly through his exertions that it has proved so successful, and been the medium of conferring so much good on the community.

On the FUNDS AVAILABLE for DEVELOPING the MACHINERY of EDUCATION in ENGLAND. By J. E. THOROLD ROGERS, M.A., some-time Professor of Political Economy in the University of Oxford, and Tooke Professor of Economic Science and Statistics, King's College, London.

[Read before Section F, British Association, at Dundee, September, 1867.]

IN the short paper which I wish to put before this Section I shall take several positions for granted. In the first place, I assume that it is held to be matter of the first importance, that the best possible education should be distributed as widely as possible among all classes of the community. Those persons who think that education is unnecessary, or at least should be limited to a minimum quantity, are, I conclude, too few and too foolish to deserve notice or invite argument.

Next, I assume that the State, which has permitted the grant of lands or personal estate to charitable uses, has an unchallenged discretion in diverting their uses when the purposes for which they were originally granted are obsolete or of no public utility, and that, *à fortiori*, the State is bound, on public grounds, to take immediate action on such funds, when the present direction which is given them has become mischievous, or even when other claims of an analogous nature have become especially pressing. The only limit I conceive to this discretion, is the rule that the future application of such funds should be such as not to impair the capital value of the fund, and not to diverge too widely from the original purposes of the donor.

In the next place, I assume that, in so far as funds are devoted to educational purposes, they should be so distributed as to give every facility for discovering and helping forward such persons as, whatever may be their origin, exhibit diligence, intelligence, and capacity. If endowments are granted in aid of education, the purpose of such endowments is frustrated, unless the road from the lowest condition of life to the highest kind of education is fairly thrown open.

Lastly, I assume that none of these conditions are as yet fulfilled. The education of the great mass of English children is very scanty. It may be doubted whether, over a great part of the English country districts, it is even progressive. In some it certainly retrogrades.

The age at which agricultural labour is commenced is, on the whole, considerably less than it was twenty years ago, and as labourers become more scanty, it is likely that the short period devoted to school education will be made shorter still. Attempted interference with the custom of employing children in agricultural labour at an early age, is as yet resented and frustrated; and there are no stringent conditions for the regular education of such town children as are not employed in factories.

It is not possible to estimate, with any degree of accuracy, the amount of endowments devoted to charitable uses. It is probable, however, that any estimate, however extravagant it might seem, would fall short of the truth. We know nothing positive, for instance, of the annual revenues of the two great English universities. It is generally believed that those of Oxford are the greatest possessed by any corporation; here, however, the calculation varies between 200,000*l.* and 400,000*l.* per annum. All we know of Oxford is the result; that this great university annually matriculates about 360 students, and confers about 320 degrees of bachelor of arts, &c. It educates about 1,300 undergraduates, who pay for their own education. Never was known such a prodigious waste of power.

Besides the endowments possessed by the universities and their colleges, there are in England a vast number of endowed grammar schools. Here, again, the public is in the dark as to the aggregate annual income of the schools. Certainly it is considerably in excess of that enjoyed by the universities; but the distribution of these endowments is even more unsatisfactory than that which is witnessed in the universities. The English universities give the best education in the country to those few among their students who are persevering and capable. The endowed schools, however, are not so successful on the whole as the proprietary schools, that is to say, those schools, the buildings of which, and to some extent the necessary salaries of which, are supplied and provisionally guaranteed by voluntary associations. When the endowed school stands side by side with a proprietary school, and in the same town, the former generally languishes—the latter generally prospers.

We have not yet done with endowments. In many ancient corporations, a portion of the estate possessed by the corporation or company is devoted to educational purposes. This is particularly the case with the great companies of the city of London. But far in excess of these funds formally assigned to education, are others which are devoted locally to so-called charities. The object of some among these charities is the highest and best conceivable, as for instance, the public hospitals; though even here it is found that hospitals supported by voluntary and annual subscriptions

only, prosper nearly as much as those which are possessed of great fixed incomes. The existence of some few almshouses is also defensible, though in many cases almshouses are only stimulants to pauperism and misery.

Most, however, of these local charities are wholly mischievous, degrading, wasteful. Some are even immoral, as for instance those given for condition of attendance at church or on religious ordinances. Many are devoted to the purpose of political bribery, the patrons to the charity finding it possible to hire partisans out of the charitable fund. I have known an instance (it is probably only historical now), in which even the funds of a grammar school, in a small parliamentary borough in the south of England, were employed to secure voters for that party which had succeeded in filling the number of the trustees from its own ranks. It should be added, that those parishes which have most charities have generally also the heaviest poor rates. The charity is bestowed, as a rule, on parishioners only; and there is, of course, a disposition on the part of those who desire to get a share of the dole to press into the favoured but unfortunate parish. It is hardly necessary to say, that the demand for the aid given exceeds the possible supply. If the whole area of the parish were covered by habitations, the *reductio ad absurdum* of such charities would be plain. No one can possibly live on the rent which he has to pay.

Nor has the change made in the constitution of the ancient English universities been an unmixed benefit. It was necessary, in order to avoid the inveterate evils of favouritism and fictitious elections, to lay down one sharp, stern rule, that henceforth elections should be made only by merit. But as the charge of an academical education in English universities was enormous, and has lately increased largely, the training which must needs have preceded the power of competing for academical endowments is so expensive, that the range over which candidates for these endowments could be qualified was exceedingly narrow. For the same reasons the fellowships, and in great measure the scholarships of the old universities are practically confined to the rich. It is very rarely the case that persons born of poor parents can, as in the Scotch universities, whose advantage to our Scotch fellow countrymen cannot be too highly estimated, attain the highest academical training and the benefits of academical endowments in England.

The business then, I think, of all education reformers is to bridge over the gulf which lies at present between those whose diligence and capacity are great, but whose means are scanty, and those whose diligence and capacity are dwarfed because they have the advantage of superior wealth. In brief, we ought, as far as possible, to render the machinery of education available for the

purpose which the founders of our ancient universities had before them, that, namely, of selecting from all ranks and classes of society fit persons (in the pious language of our forefathers) to serve God in Church and State, in the moral and material interests of society.

I will not enter into the details of the plan by which these ends could be fulfilled. I have elsewhere, and on several occasions, suggested what seems to be the fittest way in which the existing forces by which education can be stimulated, diffused, and made the means for selecting the most competent persons, may be most fully utilized.

In the first place, however, it is necessary that the existing resources for these ends should be put into a common fund, and be distributed according to the wants of the three nations. No doubt local convenience must be consulted. But I see no reason why funds given for charitable purposes in one part of these islands, should not be rendered useful to those who live in another part. I do not see why Scotchmen should not partake of English endowments, through the agency of a public trust, which should distribute a common fund, any more than that such scanty endowments as Scotland possesses should be denied to students of English birth. And in order to bring about this result, it is, I think, desirable that all charitable uses should undergo a thorough investigation, and if it be seen that they have become mischievous or useless, that they should be diverted to the best, the most lasting, and the most useful of all ends—the education of the people.

We ought to have schools in the United Kingdom, in which competent teachers, for whose maintenance (guarantees being constantly taken for their efficiency) the funds should be primarily devoted. The residue, *i.e.*, the largest part, should be distributed among such students as give proof of that capacity which will justify their being raised from the poorest condition of life to such advantages as the highest academical training may bestow. The details of such a plan are obvious, the resources for such a result are abundant.

It would be desirable, if we wish to put an end to absurd distinctions between three nations whose government and interests are one, to establish such an intercommunion between the several universities of the United Kingdom, as will enable the graduates of the poorest to compete for the endowments of the richest academical body. The real right to the endowments of Oxford and Cambridge, certain obvious conditions fulfilled, lies with those who are the fittest to win them. At present, Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin, reciprocate courtesies, but ignore the other universities of the United Kingdom. If those who have the interests of Scotland

at heart, do but strive to remedy these unfair, partial, and short-sighted limitations, they will assuredly find that there are those in the English universities who will appreciate and aid efforts which have the object of promoting local interests, by making them patriotic and national.



BRITISH ASSOCIATION, 1867.

THIRTY-SEVENTH *Meeting of the* BRITISH ASSOCIATION *for the*
Advancement of Science, held at DUNDEE, 4th—11th September,
1867.

Section F.—Economic Science and Statistics.

President.—M. E. GRANT DUFF, M.P., M.A.

Vice-Presidents.—Sir John Bowring; Dr. Farr, F.R.S.; Professor J. E. Thorold Rogers, M.A.; Colonel Sykes, M.P., F.R.S.; Principal Tulloch.

Secretaries.—Professor Leone Levi, F.S.A.; Edmund Macrory, M.A.; Alex. J. Warden.

Committee.—Colonel Sir J. E. Alexander; Rev. W. J. Bain; W. E. Baxter, M.P.; H. G. Bohn; C. Bracebridge; H. C. Briggs; Hon. G. C. Brodrick; G. Campbell; Rev. J. Crompton; A. Edward, sen.; Professor H. Fawcett, M.P.; F. P. Fellowes; Colonel Sir H. James; Dr. Lauder Lindsay; Manockjee Cursetjee; the Right. Hon. Lord Neaves; J. Newbegin; Sir John Ogilvy, Bart.; J. Oldham; A. Robertson; G. Senior; Sheriff J. G. Smith; Sir A. Waugh; Professor Williamson; J. Yates, F.R.S.

The following Papers were read in the Section:—

Thursday, 5th September.

The President's Opening Address.

Report of Committee on Uniformity of Weights, Measures, and Coins.

James Yates.—Reasons why the Office of Warden of the Standards should include Standard Weights and Measures of the Metric System, in addition to those of the Imperial Weights and Measures.

Sir John Bowring.—On Productive Labour in Prisons as associated with the Reformation of Criminals.

James Oldham.—On the Utilisation or More Profitable Employment of Male Convicts.

Professor Leone Levi.—On the Condition and Progress of Scotland in Relation to England and Ireland in Population, Education, Wealth, Taxation, Crime, Consumption of Spirits, Savings Banks, &c.

Friday, 6th September.

Report of the Committee on the "Uniformity of Weights, Measures, and Coins" (so far as it relates to Coins).

Frank P. Fellowes.—On the Various Methods in which our Coinage may be Decimalized; the Advantages and Disadvantages of each.

Henry F. Ker Porter.—On the Prevalence of Spedalske, or Leprosy, in the Kingdom of Norway.

Saturday, 7th September.

The Section did not meet on this day.

Monday, 9th September.

Alexander J. Warden.—On the Linen Manufacture of Dundee.

James G. Orchar.—On the Engineering Trade of Dundee.

Henry Gourlay.—On the Iron Shipbuilding of Dundee.

James Yeaman.—On the Seal and Whale Fisheries of Dundee.

Frank Henderson.—On the Leather Manufacture of Dundee.

C. C. Maxwell.—On the Confectionery and Marmalade Trade of Dundee.

A. Robertson.—Statistics of the Social Condition of Dundee.

E. Renals.—On Arbitration in the Nottingham Hosiery Manufacture.

Dr. Lauder Lindsay.—On the Obstacles to the Utilisation of New Zealand Flax.

A. Stephen Wilson.—On the Measure and Value of Oats.

Tuesday, 10th September.

Professor J. E. T. Rogers.—On the Funds Available for Developing the Machinery of Education.

Colonel Sykes, M.P.—Analyses of the Report upon the State of the Empire of France, presented to the Senate and Legislative Body, February, 1867. ("Exposition de la Situation de l'Empire," présenté au Senat et au Corps Legislatif. Fevrier, 1867.)

P. H. Thoms.—Observations on Community of Language and Uniformity of Notation, Weights, Measures, and Coinage.

P. M. Tait.—On the Population and Mortality of Calcutta.

Patrick Matthew.—Employer and Employed; Capital and Labour.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY.

SESSION 1866-67.

First Ordinary Meeting, Tuesday, 20th November, 1866.

Colonel W. H. Sykes, M.P., Vice-President, in the Chair.

The following Gentleman was elected a Fellow of the Society,
viz.:—

William G. Larkins, Esq.

The following Paper was read:—

“On Railway Extension and its Results.” By Mr. R. Dudley Baxter, M.A.

Second Ordinary Meeting, Tuesday, 18th December, 1866.

Colonel W. H. Sykes, M.P., Vice-President, in the Chair.

The following Gentlemen were elected Fellows of the Society,
viz.:—

George Senior, Esq.

Thomas Heywood, Esq.

Frederick H. Harper, Esq.

Thomas Tully, Esq.

Robert Harry Inglis Palgrave, Esq.

The following Paper was read:—

“On Combinations and Strikes, with Reference to the Rate
“of Wages.” By Mr. Jacob Waley, M.A.

Third Ordinary Meeting, Tuesday, 15th January, 1867.

Samuel Brown, Esq., Vice-President, in the Chair.

The following Gentlemen were elected Fellows of the Society,
viz.:—

Charles Edward Lewis, Esq.

R. Llandaff Watson, Esq.

Alexander Bremner, Esq.

Herbert Lloyd Reid, Esq.

*** M. L. Wolowski, Member of the Institute of France, was elected a
Foreign Honorary Member.

The following Paper was read:—

“On Prison Discipline and Statistics in Bengal.” By Dr. Mouat.

Fourth Ordinary Meeting, Tuesday, 19th February, 1867.

Lord Houghton, President, in the Chair.

The following Gentlemen were elected Fellows of the Society,
viz.:—

Ralph A. Earle, Esq., M.P.

Daniel Stiebel, Esq.

Guillermo Enrique Marthin, Esq.

The following Paper was read :—

“ On the Military Conscription of France.” By Major-General Balfour, C.B.

Fifth Ordinary Meeting, Tuesday, 19th March, 1867.

Samuel Brown, Esq., in the Chair.

The following Gentlemen were elected Fellows of the Society,
viz.:—

John Addison, Esq.		Robert James Spencer, Esq.
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The following Paper was read :—

“ On the Progress of Elementary Education.” By Mr. W. L. Sargent.

Sixth Ordinary Meeting, Tuesday, 16th April, 1867.

Colonel W. H. Sykes, M.P., in the Chair.

The following Gentlemen were elected Fellows of the Society,
viz.:—

W. Fairley, Esq.		W. B. Hodgson, Esq., LL.D.
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The following Paper was read :—

“ On the Mortality of London Hospitals: and Incidentally on
“ the Deaths in the Prisons and other Public Institutions of the
“ Metropolis.” By Dr. Guy, F.R.S.

Seventh Ordinary Meeting, Tuesday, 21st May, 1867.

Samuel Brown, Esq., in the Chair.

The following Gentlemen were elected Fellows of the Society,
viz.:—

Richard Lee, Esq.		Lonsdale Bradley, Esq.
Isaac Holden, Esq., M.P.		Robert Giffen, Esq.

The following Paper was read :—

“ On the Judicial Statistics of England, with Special Reference
“ to the Recent Returns relating to Crime.” By Mr. J. T. Hammick.

Eighth Ordinary Meeting, Tuesday, 18th June, 1867.

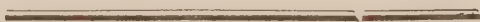
Colonel W. H. Sykes, M.P., in the Chair.

The following Gentlemen were elected Fellows of the Society,
viz.:—

Herr Ernest von Pleuer.		Edward Robert Kelly, Esq.
James Martin, Esq.		William Henry Smith, Esq.

The following Paper was read :—

“ On the Statistics of Civil Procedure in English Courts of
“ Law.” By Mr. W. J. Bovill.



MISCELLANEA.

CONTENTS:

	PAGE		PAGE
I.—Statistics of the Papal States	566	IV.—The Cotton Trade with France	574
II.—Irish Emigration and Irish		V.—Prussian Agriculture	575
Agriculture	571	VI.—The New York Clearing	
III.—Shipwrecks	572	House	577

I.—*Statistics of the Papal States.*

AT the Sixth Session of the International Statistical Congress, recently held at Florence, the Government of the Papal States, as might have been expected, was unrepresented. Amongst the eminent men, however, who attended from the universities and chief cities of Italy, mostly as delegates from various learned and scientific bodies, was Signor David Silvagni, of Rome, who presented to the members of the Congress an able Memoir on the Roman States. The Council has been favoured with the following abridged translation of the statistical portion of this memoir by Mr. J. T. Hammick, one of the English official delegates.—ED. S. J.

Territory, &c.

The actual States of the Church comprise an area of 11,000 square kilometres (=4,247 English square miles), enclosed between the Appenines and the sea, which form a boundary 450 kilometres (=280 miles), in length. The Tiber traverses the entire country from Rome to Fiumicino, and should be navigable for vessels of 400 tons. The Roman States occupy the basin of this river, and the greater part is identical with the ancient Latium, which, from its mineral wealth and productive soil, Virgil pronounced to be destined to give masters to Italy and the world: *Tantæ molis erat Romanam condere gentem.*

Where formerly existed the celebrated roads, magnificent villas, aqueducts, and colossal monuments, now reign solitude, desolation, and malaria. The hand of man has done nothing to improve that which time and the invasions of the barbarians have laid waste. Within the small cultivated belt round the city, the villas, the vineries, and the gardens, prove the soil to be productive; and the climate allows the orange, the lemon, the palm, the camelia, &c., to flourish in the open air, with the myrtle, the olive, the vine, and vegetables and cereals of every kind. But the plain is a waste, and towards the sea a marsh. A little wheat and some maize are raised in favourable spots, but all the rest is neglected, and the cattle upon it can barely exist. There are no houses, chalets, trees, or even sheds to shelter the animals; the wool of the sheep is, consequently, coarse, and the beef of inferior quality.

All this is easily explained. This territory, known as *Agro Romano*, is the property of religious corporations and of the nobles who never cultivate the lands on their own account, but let them for short terms to farmers. These men never incur any outlay for improving the soil, or think of adopting a careful system of cultivation; they exhaust the land in drawing from it the largest amount of present profit. The properties have for centuries been shared between those who hold in mortmain, and have no motive for improvement, and the aristocracy, who, acquiring them by right of primogeniture, from indolence leave things in the same condition. The Church possesses the larger share of the territory. More than 22,000 hectares belong to the Chapter of St. Peter; 16,842 hectares are the property of religious corporations; the Holy Office owns 6,424 hectares; the cardinal dean 3,221; different churches, abbeys, benefices, &c., 32,962. Trusts, settlements, and perpetual entails eat up the rest of the country. Even in Rome, two-fifths of the buildings are held in mortmain.

Population

The Papal States contain 692,112 inhabitants, being 63 persons per square kilometre.

The population of the city of Rome was 175,883 in 1847; 179,952 in 1857; and in 1867 the recent census makes it 215,572. The increase between 1847 and 1857, however, was not real, because in the three years, 1855-57, the deaths exceeded the births by 4,896, and in the preceding years the births were little more numerous than the deaths. An explanation of the increase is found in the immigration of foreigners, especially of French, who, under the protection derived from the military occupation by France, exercised their callings in Rome. In the last ten years there is also an increase, amounting to 35,620 persons; but it should be borne in mind, that the enumeration was made at Easter in this year, a season when many strangers, more particularly Italians from other provinces, were in Rome. Moreover, the enumeration was made by the parochial clergy, who included all persons in their parishes at the time, at least such as were not foreigners and non-catholics. There has been no sensible increase of births in the decade; but, owing to events in Southern Italy, many Neapolitans have established themselves in Rome. On the other hand, the Jewish population has diminished from 8,000 in 1847, to 4,650 at the present time, nearly five hundred families having been forced, by vexations and oppression, to quit Rome. Meanwhile the ecclesiastical population has doubled. In 1853 it comprised 4,164 individuals of both sexes; there are now 7,409. Fortune, wealth, and power combine to augment the number of this class every year. The non-catholics were 564 in 1847; in 1857 there were only 151; the present number is 457, composed of English, Swiss, and Germans, established in Rome. Through persecution the population of the city, which in 1848, under a liberal Government, had reached 179,000 persons, was reduced in 1849 to 169,740 persons. Nearly 10,000 persons were driven into exile, and it required years of French immigration to restore the number.

Trade and Commerce.

It may be asserted, without fear of contradiction, that the industry of the country has made very little progress during the last half century. The woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures remain in the same state as in 1826. The iron-works were sixteen in 1826, and the number has not increased; only three are of any importance. Glove-making has decreased, but dyers, saddlers, coach-builders, and printers have doubled. The pottery manufacture has made no progress; that of glass has improved. All the trades concerned in the preparation and sale of provisions have advanced, as have those also which are connected with the fine arts, such as cabinet-making, upholstery, gold and silversmiths' work, &c. But this is not enough for the wants of a country dependent upon foreigners for nearly every necessary of life. The industry of a country like this ought to be based on agriculture. When it produces plenty of corn, wine, rice, oil, and cotton, trade and commerce will follow in their wake; when it raises the silkworm it will not fail to take care also of its sheep and cattle; the silk will be manufactured; the wool will be of good quality; and it will not be necessary to go out of the country for good meat. So long, however, as agriculture remains stationary, the slave of the Church, or in the hands of some wealthy vassals, no improvement in the system of cultivation will take place, and raw materials suitable for conversion into manufactured products of superior quality will not be produced. Our exports are insignificant compared with our imports; the latter are valued at 38,000,000 frs., while the exports do not reach 9,000,000 frs. In fact, our only export of importance is that of objects of the fine arts, which increases yearly; but the fine arts have not gained anything by becoming a branch of trade. At the Paris Exhibition Rome has gained no prize worth mentioning, and Roman art is reduced to the mean condition of mere mechanical labour, except in the case of a few distinguished artists. There are only four associations for manufacturing purposes, and three of these are not flourishing; the Roman Railways Company is nearly in a state of bankruptcy. Industrial associations may be said to have no existence in the Pontifical States, and without them, where is the capital to come from for advancing the industry of the country?

Thus a country which might be the richest in the world, which is capable of being transformed into a garden, and which might easily have a port filled with shipping in the midst of the city, would see its population die of hunger if multitudes of foreigners did not come every year to Rome to view her superb ruins, or fervent catholics did not repair thither to receive the benediction of the Pope.

Finances, Taxes, and Public Debt.

When a State has no resources derived from manufactures, agriculture, or commerce, its expenditure in maintaining a Government which does nothing, or next to nothing, to improve the condition of the tax-payers, ought to be small. In Rome, however,

things are different. This may be readily conceived, when it is considered that the budget shows an average deficit of about 30,000,000 frs. annually, arising principally out of the public debt and the charge for the maintenance of the army. In ordinary times, before 1860, the strength of the army was 15,000 men, or 5 for every 1,000 inhabitants. The army now maintained by the Government is equal to 23 for every 1,000 persons—a proportion higher even than that of Prussia, the most military State in the world. Formerly nearly all the troops were Romans, now, the natives of the Papal States form scarcely a third of the army. Naturally enough, the Finance Minister, being unable to make up his deficiency with the offerings of St. Peter, estimated at nearly 6,000,000 frs. per annum, endeavours to reduce it by taxation. The public taxes for last year amounted to about 35,000,000 frs., being at the rate of 51 frs. per head. To these must be added the local taxes (communal and provincial), and it will be found that the subjects of the Pope pay more than 60 frs. per head, while in France the amount for each person does not exceed 45 frs.

Under the Empire, in 1812, the public debt of the States of the Church was entirely liquidated. On the restoration of the Pontifical Government, a rente of about 1,250,000 frs. was inscribed in favour of the religious societies which were unable to recover their property, and after thirty years this had increased to 16,000,000 frs. The public debt is now equivalent to 35,000,000 frs. *annually*; and even when the Italian Government shall have taken upon itself a portion of the debt in respect of the annexed provinces, the Pontifical Government must long continue its heavy taxation, without the hope of getting rid of the deficit created by the luxury of the court and the expense of the large army it maintains.

The system of imposing heavy taxes ruins agriculture, while it renders their collection difficult. At the same time, the continual issue of rentes banishes all confidence in the Government, so that although the rente (*consolidato*) may be quoted on Change, there are no buyers. Persons with capital prefer to deposit their money in the savings bank or to employ it in building houses in the city.

Public Instruction, Charities, &c.

Public instruction is by no means wanting in the Papal States, but being afforded with the view of maintaining the institutions of the dominant caste, it serves only to produce some men of learning for the church or the bar, and leaves all other classes in ignorance. The elementary schools are very numerous, and many are gratuitous. About 25,000 children of both sexes attend the schools of Rome, so that about 6,000 or 7,000 children are not receiving instruction. But those who attend the schools fail to obtain the same advantages as in other large towns in Italy, owing to (1) the utter want of method in the studies; (2) the insufficiency of the instruction given, especially to the girls, who in general learn only a little catechism and needlework; and (3) the inadequate salaries paid to the schoolmasters and schoolmistresses. The latter are almost always nuns, who are themselves very slenderly educated. The

children are not taught history, geography, or geometry, and gymnastics are entirely banished.

There are two lyceums, one under the direction of the Jesuits, and the other under that of priests. In Rome there are, besides twenty-nine colleges or seminaries where youths are taken in to board, but all except five are for young ecclesiastics; and they are all managed by priests, monks, or Jesuits. For young ladies there are also boarding-schools and colleges, but all are under the management of nuns, who strive to inspire their pupils with a love of the cloisters, and this explains why so many young women take the veil.

There is also a university which has 400 or 500 students, who are well instructed in law and mathematics; but it has no chairs of political economy, statistics, rhetoric, or the philosophy of history; and it will be fortunate if a professor of commercial law is appointed next year.

For all these institutions the Government expends scarcely anything, as they are maintained out of their own revenues. This shows that the heavy weight of taxation is not borne for the sake of public education or for anything useful to social existence.

As regards the charitable institutions of Rome, so great is their number, that it may be said, without exaggeration, that a seventh of the inhabitants, or nearly 30,000 persons, are through their agency constantly being brought up, relieved, tended, pensioned, or presented with marriage portions.* If this does honour to the generosity of the pious persons who founded the charities, it also throws light on the economic condition of the country.

Amongst other institutions are four asylums, established of late years, for poor children; they have met with many obstacles, because their founders and supporters are laymen. There is also a savings bank which, from its judicious management and the high character of its founders, has prospered. In 1850 the bank had deposits amounting to 7,000,000 frs.; in 1864 they had reached 15,000,000 frs.; it now receives more than 3,000 frs. a month, the citizens of all classes preferring to invest their savings in this institution rather than in the public funds, in which they have no confidence.

But notwithstanding all these beneficent institutions, a large number of the poor are always seen in the streets begging for alms. Indeed, the condition of a State in which, out of 42,700 families, there are scarcely 500 proprietors, explains why there are more than 30,000 persons who have need of public charity, and who live in idleness, misery, and vice.

[The learned author concludes his memoir with a forcible sketch of the manners, habits, and character of the Roman population, for which we regret our inability to find space.]

* More than 1,300 marriage portions of from 150 to 250 frs. each, are bestowed annually on poor young girls.

II.—*Irish Emigration and Irish Agriculture.*

TAKEN from a report in the *Manchester Guardian* of the 3rd December:—

“ At the opening meeting of the session of the Dublin Statistical Society, on Friday evening, the question ‘ Whether emigration, so far as it has gone, has really been injurious to Ireland, and whether there is reason to fear that it will go much further,’ was the subject of the inaugural address by Mr. Murland, the President. Mr. Murland referred to the statement that Ireland is going out of cultivation year after year, just in proportion as the population becomes reduced. This is a favourite argument of those who complain of the depression of the country and the neglect of its material interests. In proof of the assertion, a comparison is drawn between its production of 16,000,000 quarters of grain in 1847, when there were eight and a-half millions of people,* and of only 6,840,000 quarters of grain in 1866, when there were less than six millions of people. Mr. Murland observed that if those figures, which were substantially correct, were taken by themselves, they appeared to prove the statement, but if examined in connection with others, it would be seen that the facts warranted a different inference. Taking the total result of the two years, it would appear that in 1847 the number of acres under cultivation was 5,238,575, while in 1866 it was 5,519,678; so that, instead of having only one half the land under cultivation, as might be supposed from the first comparison, we have actually 281,103 more cultivated acres. If the relative values of the crops in the two years, as given by Thom, were compared, the result would be found still more satisfactory. In 1847 they were worth 23,758,588*l.*, whereas in 1865 they were valued at 29,887,703*l.* In this calculation no account was taken of increased prices, although it is notorious that the prices of all crops have been increasing. It should not be forgotten, too, that the value of live stock has very much advanced since 1847. In that year the value of horses, cattle, sheep, and pigs was 24,437,401*l.*, whereas in 1865 it was 32,317,007*l.* He inferred from these facts, and the present low rate of wages in the country, that emigration has not gone too far, and that, with the prospect of obtaining remunerative employment, which was rendered more probable for those who remained, it might be expected that in future the drain of emigration would not much exceed the natural increase of the population. The great object to which those who were interested in the prosperity of the country should devote their energies was the improved cultivation of the soil. To encourage such improvement, it was generally admitted that some amendment of the law of landlord and tenant was required. There were difficulties in determining the details of such amendment, but all sects were agreed as to the principle. He thought the safest course was not to attempt to control by legislation the tenure of land, but to make its transfer

* This of course was before the potato famine; the actual census taken in 1851 showed the population to be 6,552,385, against 8,175,124 according to the enumeration of 1841.—ED. S. J.

as cheap and expeditious as possible. A beneficial change had already been effected by the operation of the Landed Estates Court, whose practice of selling estates in lots had greatly increased the number of proprietors. The cultivation of small farms would also tend to benefit the country. He called attention to the fact that before 1845 the whole country was subject to periodical distress, whereas it is now confined almost exclusively to the west, where the people have no employment except upon their poor farms, which, owing to the severity of the climate, can barely afford them the necessaries of life in favourable seasons. From a parliamentary return of the holdings in Ireland under the annual rental of 4*l.*, it appeared that one-third of the whole number was in Donegal, Mayo, and Galway, and the probable value of them was between 2*l.* and 3*l.* a-year. If the occupiers had their holdings in fee and rent free they would still be in poverty. No just man would suggest that these people should be turned out of doors; but the only way of improving their condition was by assisting them to remove to other places where they could find employment."

III. —*Shipwrecks.*

THE subjoined article appeared in the *Saturday Review*, under the title of "The Causes of Wrecks:"—

"A great many dismal returns of casualties of various kinds are annually produced for the warning of people who seem to pay little heed to the teachings of statistics, or of anything else. The records of railway disasters, indeed, rather diminish the impressiveness of the lesson conveyed, on account of the comparatively small percentage which the actual deaths bear to the number of passengers conveyed; and as for the constant drain of life by the neglect of sanitary precautions, we have all grown so used to the normal conditions of fever-breeding that the Registrar-General's returns of mortality scarcely produce any appreciable effect. It is otherwise, however, with the register of casualties at sea. Except to those whose life is spent upon the sea, a tale of wreck is unfamiliar enough to seize hold strongly of the imagination, while the terrible adjuncts of these most appalling of disasters must, one would think, suffice to prevent any amount of familiarity from dulling the sense of horror. And yet the annual *Wreck Register* includes at least as large a number of avoidable casualties as are presented by the returns of accidents by land, while there is some reason to fear that the years, as they roll on, bring with them anything rather than symptoms of improvement. The Chart for 1866, which has recently appeared, shows a large increase in the number of wrecks on the British coast. No less than 2,289 ships are returned as lost or damaged, the casualties including 422 collisions, by almost every one of which two vessels suffered, besides 562 total wrecks from other causes, and 876 cases of partial loss. This is a formidable catalogue, and it is almost a relief to find that the loss of life is not even greater than it is; but it is serious enough to hear that 896 sailors and passengers are returned as having been lost in 200 vessels. It thus appears that in more than nine cases out of ten the crew and passengers manage to escape, owing in a very large degree to the provision of lifeboats made all round the coast by the exertions of one of our most valuable institutions, and to the unflinching courage of the crews by which these boats are manned. If the inevitable dangers of the sea were the sole cause of these calamities, the returns would be an useless

subject to discuss, except perhaps in a sermon; but it is certain that many, and probable that most, of the disasters to shipping are to be ranked among the avoidable causes of destruction to life and property.

“Some sort of classification is generally attempted in the official returns, though, for some reason or other, the presumed causes of wreck are not detailed in the last report. The upshot, however, of previous experience is, that about half the total losses from causes other than collisions are in a greater or less degree attributable to stress of weather, while the remainder are attributable in nearly equal proportions to unseaworthiness, or other defects in the ship or equipment, and to the neglect or incompetence of the captain or crew. Even this gives an insufficient idea of the extent to which wrecks are properly to be classed as avoidable calamities, for hundreds of cases occur—like that of the ‘London’ for instance—in which, though the weather was in one sense the occasion of the loss, the ship might not improbably have escaped had she been sent to sea in better trim, or handled by a more competent crew. In the case of collisions, except those which occur during fogs, one or other of the ships is almost always in fault, so that we can scarcely be wrong in attributing the great majority of these catastrophes to the bad seamanship of the officers in charge of one or both of the vessels. On the most lenient view that can be taken, the majority of the casualties at sea are to be laid to the charge either of masters or owners; and it is a very grave question how the blame is to be divided between them, and whether any means can be devised to encourage or compel greater attention to the conditions of safety.

“One or two facts come out very clearly from the returns. In the first place, an enormous number of ships are daily sent to sea in a crazy condition, wholly unfit to contend against even a moderate gale. Between half and a third of the whole number of wrecks fall upon the collier class of vessel, and it is a matter of perfect notoriety that a really seaworthy collier is the exception rather than the rule. The larger class of vessels, in which most of the passenger packets are included, produce a much smaller number of casualties; and these, as is well known, are under the control of an official supervision which, however imperfectly it may be exercised by the Board of Trade, does seem to exclude from the risks of the sea the chance of tempting the weather in a vessel almost doomed to destruction before she sails. In many respects the inspections of officers under the Board of Trade are lamentably defective; and it has long been the favourite maxim of the chiefs of that supine department, that it would be better to leave ships and crews and passengers to the tender mercies of political economy, and to trust to the imagined interests of owners to secure the seaworthy condition of their ships. The statistics, however, point the other way; for where there is no inspection—as in the case of colliers—calamities are far more frequent, though less noticed by the public, than those which befall passenger vessels. When a gentleman is murdered in a first-class carriage, the sympathy felt by people who may any day be exposed to the same danger, is wonderfully more active than when a coalheaver thrashes his wife to death. Just in the same way, the foundering of one packet-ship alarms the public mind infinitely more than the loss of any number of crazy colliers; and if it were not for the statistics annually published, it would scarcely be known that there is a class of shipowners who habitually, knowingly, and as a judicious mode of carrying on business, send out floating coffins, fit only for the breaker’s yard, with crews scarcely strong enough to navigate even a first-class ship in safety. And yet we are told that Government interference does more harm than good, and that it is always the interest of the shipowner to save his property from the chance of loss. The real truth is that he has no such interest, and that it is a problem depending on the rate of insurance, the interest of money, the foolhardiness of seamen, and some few other conditions, whether it pays better to buy vessels that are sound and comparatively dear, or to use worn out craft that no man whose conscience was not blunted by custom and example, would dare to send to sea at all. Experience, moreover, shows that, as a rule, it does pay best to employ unseaworthy craft in the collier and some other branches of the coasting trade; and, however sacred the doctrine of *laissez faire* may be in certain cliques, it cannot be for a moment

denied that it does lead to a multiplication of casualties to life, and to a serious loss of property—loss, unfortunately, not to the niggardly owner—who is insured, but not the less loss of actual property, by which the national wealth is to that extent diminished. It is something to know, first, that even bad Government inspection is not entirely useless; and, secondly that under the present conditions of some branches of trade, it does unhappily pay to increase, instead of diminishing, the avoidable dangers of the sea. It has been said that the true remedy for the wicked indifference of owners to the safety of their crews rests with those who navigate their ships, and that, if sailors would but refuse to serve in what are known to be floating coffins, there would soon be none of this undesirable class of ships left in existence. This is true, like most other statements qualified by an ‘if.’ But it is notorious that the seamen engaged in the coasting trade have almost abandoned the idea of insisting upon passing their lives in a seaworthy and well-found ship. The practice of considering any old hull good enough for a collier has become so universal, that a strike against dangerous ships would throw half the maritime population of the east coast out of employment for months, if not years; and the men, though ready enough to stand out for an extra shilling or two per month, are too hardy and too accustomed to the special risks which they run to make any effective protest against the capidity of their employers. This might be otherwise if the class by whom the evil is chiefly felt were more intelligent or less courageous, but the fact remains that neither the interest of the owners nor the prudence of the seamen is such as to insure the seaworthiness of the great majority of the class of vessels of which we are speaking. Whether this is or is not to be considered a case for legislative interposition depends mainly on the broad question whether the *doctrinaire* maxims of a certain school of economists are a more precious possession than the lives of hundreds of the stoutest and the bravest of our seafaring population. There are, strange to say, different opinions on this abstract question; but if all those who are indifferent to the subject, simply because the peril to which greedy owners expose their servants is not brought to their attention, would but stir their little fingers in a good cause, it would soon be seen how far the hard doctrines that have been preached from official pulpits are from commanding assent or even toleration from the common sense of the community.

“We have dwelt upon the single case of the collier fleet, not as the solitary, but as the most striking instance of the evils produced by the absence of adequate machinery for the protection of those who trust their lives to the chances of a seafaring career. Much might also be said, notwithstanding some improvement of late years, of the incompetency of too many of the masters of all except the first-class of passenger ships. The same power that would check the one mischief, could be applied to control the other; but without entering into any details, our purpose will be accomplished if we succeed in directing attention to the two leading facts to be gathered from the *Wreck Register*—namely, first, that the ordinary influences which govern the action of men of business do not prevent ships more or less unseaworthy from being habitually used; and secondly, the Government inspection, where it is applied, does to a large extent restrain this most abominable form of reckless cupidity.”

IV — *The Cotton Trade with France.*

FROM the report of the proceedings of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, as given in the *Manchester Guardian*:—

“In connection with the subject of French cotton exports and imports, the following statistics, received from Mr. H. R. Lack, of the Board of Trade, were placed before the meeting:—

Imports from France.

	Cotton Yarn and Cotton Yarn Waste.		Cotton Manufactures.
	lb.	£	£
1859.....	—	—	371,774
'60.....	45,322	4,448	384,251
'61.....	26,448	3,893	399,210
'62.....	152,889*	6,806	450,397
'63.....	905,228*	29,489	553,602
'64.....	1,875,620*	51,465	411,182
'65.....	1,696,048*	41,177	377,647
'66.....	2,518,635*	41,989	589,216

* Almost entirely "waste" of cotton yarn.

Exports of British Manufactures to France.

	Cotton Yarn.		Cotton Manufactures.			Total Value.
			Piece Goods.		Other Kinds.	
	lbs.	£	Yards.	£	£	£
1859	360,319	33,379	9,501,637	174,441	47,942	222,383
'60	533,931	50,459	10,871,407	206,849	41,412	248,261
'61	1,701,565	187,228	31,331,305	478,327	83,554	561,881
'62	1,899,366	245,807	34,716,448	548,381	190,256	738,637
'63	959,988	178,467	17,654,091	452,128	103,991	556,119
'64	854,636	168,010	19,657,677	520,846	118,142	638,988
'65	1,561,086	286,430	21,507,914	599,348	133,875	733,223
'66	4,083,919	535,904	56,343,372	1,294,820	204,074	1,498,894

Though the cotton exports to France cannot, compared with the trade we carry on with other countries, be considered large, they are now in value *seven* times what they were in 1859.

V.—*Prussian Agriculture.*

THE following article appeared in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, under the title of "Science and Farming:"—

"The cry has already been pretty loudly raised in England that we must educate our manufacturers and operatives, both generally and technically, or cease to compete with other nations in any but the coarsest and cheapest products of industry. This has been the lesson of the Paris Exhibition as far as concerns arts and manufactures. That technical education is no less important in agricultural labours is shown by a suggestive description of Prussian agriculture in an

article entitled 'L'Allemagne depuis la Guerre de 1866,' and signed by M. de Laveleye, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for September.

"Until about 1833 (according to M. de Laveleye) farming was in a very backward state in North Germany. A rotation of two years in cereals and one year in fallow continued from the times of Charlemagne far into the present century, and though clover and potatoes began to be cultivated in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and an Austrian yeoman was rewarded for his hay by Joseph II, with the title of Von Kleefeld, or Cloverfield, the new crops gained ground but slowly against the triennial fallow. But in the last half century, since Stein's reforms, since the abolition (in 1833) of the paralyzing *corvée*, and, above all, since the diffusion of information by the means to be detailed below, everything has changed. A two-year system of cereals alternated with roots or seeds has spread over Germany, has brought with it an enormous increase of live stock, and has increased the crops by the resulting manure, whilst diminishing the area of unproductive fallow from a third to a seventh of all the arable land. With the increase in the amount of stock has come also an improvement of the breeds, dairy cattle from Holland, pigs from England, Rambouillet, Southdown, and merino sheep; so that since 1816 the animal products have at least doubled in value. Reducing the live stock of all kinds to equivalents of horned cattle, M. de Laveleye finds that in 1865 Prussia had 100 such units for every 138 of the population, France only 100 for every 185, while forty years since these proportions were reversed. Steam ploughs have not yet been largely introduced, but horse machinery abounds, and in many districts the small proprietors combine to maintain steam threshers as well as public bulls of the best breeds. Beet sugar rose from 3,000,000 lbs. for the whole of North Germany in 1837 to 375,000,000 in 1865, the amount produced in Prussia alone in the latter year exceeding the total production of France. The land has risen 100 and in some parts 200 per cent. in price; and, what is of even greater importance in the eyes of the Frenchman of to-day, with the rapid development of agriculture that rural class from which armies are chiefly drawn has doubled itself in Prussia within fifty years, against an absolute decrease of the corresponding population in France. In the fourteen years from 1846 to 1860 Prussia gained 1,000,000, and France lost over 700,000 of agricultural population. The total relative gain of Prussia in this respect from 1816 to 1860 amounts to 6,000,000 persons, representing 1,000,000 effective men.

"M. de Laveleye proceeds to ask what are the causes which have reversed the conditions of nature, and have in a few years placed Prussia even ahead of fertile France. The first is the complete extension of general education throughout the rural districts of Prussian Germany. 'This miracle of the multiplication of food has been worked by the knowledge of physical and economic laws. Such a result of education comes slowly and insensibly, for in the intellectual field we sow to-day, but wait twenty or thirty years for harvest. It is not enough for the peasant to learn how to read and write; he must actually read, he must understand what he reads, and learn to profit by it.' Second only in importance to the diffusion of general education is the technical instruction provided now in almost every country except England and Spain for the mechanic and manufacturing population, but for agriculturists nowhere so well as in Germany. Prussia maintains four Royal Academies of Agriculture, at which both the theory and the practice of farming are taught in a course lasting two years, and costing each student less than 8*l.* a-year for instruction 'in political and rural economy, based on statistics in farming, and the management of trees and woods; in the mode of manufacturing sugar, beer, bricks, and draining tiles; in mineralogy, geology, botany, and chemistry, with experiments and excursions; and lastly in mathematics, trigonometry, land surveying, practical mechanics, veterinary surgery, rural law, the history of their country, and constitutional law.' 'Excursions into the most interesting districts complete the programme, which it will be seen is extensive enough, and quite as capable as Latin of opening the mind of youth.' And these academies are attended, be it remembered, by persons who have to make their living by their own farms, commonly of small extent. For the amateurs a less practical instruction is pro-

vided at institutes attached to the universities of Halle and Berlin. Below the academies are nineteen provincial schools of agriculture, subsidized by the State to the aggregate amount of about 2,000*l.*, and for the most part kept by some large farmer, assisted by the neighbouring apothecary, schoolmaster, and veterinary surgeon. There are further in Prussia numerous special 'schools' for particular branches, such as market-gardening, and the cultivation of meadows and woods; and the care of fruit-trees is taught in 134 schools in the ancient provinces alone. The system of paid instruction is completed by the curious institution of wandering teachers, who circulate from village to village, criticising the cultivation and giving advice about rotations of crops and the most suitable kinds of manure. But this is not all. The State maintains seven experimental institutes of organic and agricultural chemistry, which on different soils and under different circumstances are engaged in verifying and completing the theories of Liebig and in testing the purity of the artificial manures of commerce. Last come no less than 519 voluntary agricultural associations, which by conferences, exhibitions and prizes assist in spreading information. Apart from the academies and institutes of chemistry little is done by the State either to excite or direct private action. There is a central commission presided over by a Minister of Agriculture, but its expenses in 1862 amounted to no more than 177*l.*, and the chief exception to the general rule of non-interference is one of a political as much as of an economic nature. Three large stud farms, maintained at a net cost of 20,000*l.* a-year, continually improve the breed of horses for war as well as peace. Eleven hundred stallions, distributed from these farms through the provinces, get annually 35,000 foals—a number sufficient to modify the breed throughout the country in any desired direction in a very few years.

"To other causes, such as the simple and economic habits of the German farmer, and Prussia's good fortune in not having an Algiers, a large fleet, and, above all, a Paris, to oppress agriculture by the drain both of money and of men, M. de Laveleye assigns much importance, but the great secret of the success of Prussian agriculture is diffused education and technical instruction."

VI.—The New York Clearing House.

FROM the money market review in the *Manchester Guardian*, 17th October last—

"The total transactions of the New York Clearing House since the period of its organisation, on the 11th of October, 1853, a period of fourteen years, reached the heavy total of 37,578,093,560*l.*, all of which transactions are said to have been completed without loss or error. Annexed are the particulars for each year, commencing with 1854:—

	£
1854	1,150,091,100
'55	1,072,588,420
'56	1,381,242,670
'57	1,666,645,350
'58	951,342,880
1859	1,289,601,190
'60	1,446,228,610
'61	1,183,148,550
'62	1,374,288,720
'63	2,973,519,570
1864	4,819,439,330
'65	5,206,476,870
'66	5,743,429,380
'67	5,735,031,900

MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

No. I.—ENGLAND AND WALES.

MARRIAGES IN THE QUARTER ENDED 30TH JUNE, 1867,
AND BIRTHS AND DEATHS IN THE QUARTER
ENDED 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1867.

The *Registers* of the UNITED KINGDOM show that the *births* of 252,370 children, and the *deaths* of 142,150 persons of both sexes, were registered in the three months ending on *September* 30th. The recorded natural increase was 110,220; the native emigrants were 45,278.

The registered marriages of the United Kingdom in the quarter ending *June* 30th, 1867, were 56,239.

The death-rate of the United Kingdom differs little from that prevailing in England and Wales. The several facts concerning the other divisions of the kingdom are set forth in the quarterly reports of the Registrar-General of Scotland and the Registrar-General of Ireland.

The resident population of the United Kingdom in the middle of 1867, is estimated at 30,157,239; that of England and Wales amounting to 21,429,508, of Scotland to 3,170,769, and of Ireland to 5,556,962. The corrected death-rate of the quarter is 1·952 per cent.; the birth-rate 3·470; the marriage-rate for the previous quarter 1·542.

ENGLAND:—MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, and DEATHS, returned in the Years
1861-67, and in the QUARTERS of those Years.

Calendar YEARS, 1861-67:—Numbers.

Years	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
Marriages No.	—	187,519	185,474	180,387	173,510	164,030	163,706
<i>Births</i> „	—	753,188	748,069	740,275	727,417	712,684	696,406
Deaths „	—	500,938	490,909	495,531	473,837	436,566	435,114

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1861-67.

(I.) MARRIAGES:—Numbers.

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March..... No.	36,380	37,576	36,807	37,988	35,528	33,953	33,274
June „	45,462	48,523	45,827	44,599	44,146	40,853	42,012
September „	—	46,196	45,852	44,675	41,932	40,600	39,884
December „	—	55,224	56,988	53,125	51,904	48,624	48,536

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1861-67.

(II.) BIRTHS :—*Numbers.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March..... No.	195,455	196,737	194,130	192,947	186,341	181,990	172,933
June „	199,649	192,459	192,988	188,835	189,340	185,554	184,820
September „	190,255	178,982	181,941	181,015	173,439	172,709	172,033
December „	—	185,010	179,010	177,478	178,297	172,431	166,620

(III.) DEATHS :—*Numbers.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March..... No.	134,254	138,233	140,410	142,977	128,096	122,019	121,215
June „	112,523	128,692	115,892	116,880	118,121	107,392	107,558
September „	108,462	116,826	113,362	112,223	112,504	92,381	101,232
December „	—	117,187	121,245	123,451	115,116	114,774	105,109

England.—This Return comprises the BIRTHS and DEATHS registered by 2,200 registrars in all the districts of England during the quarter that ended on September 30th, 1867; and the MARRIAGES in 12,975 churches or chapels, about 5,663 registered places of worship unconnected with the Established Church, and 641 Superintendent Registrars' offices, in the quarter that ended on June 30th, 1867.

The marriage returns for the first six months of the year show that, taking the increase of population into account, the number of alliances formed has been below the average. The returns of births and deaths may be regarded with satisfaction; during the nine months ending 30th September, the births have exceeded and the deaths have been below the average numbers.

MARRIAGES.—In the quarter ending 30th June, the number of persons married was 90,924, or 6,122 fewer than were married in the same period of the previous year. The returns confirm previous experience, and show that times of commercial depression and higher prices of wheat and potatoes are quickly followed by a decrease in the number of persons contracting marriage. The annual rate during the quarter was 170 to 10,000 of the population, which is 1·4 less than the average of the season, and 13·4 less than the corresponding three months of 1866, when trade disasters and the consequent diminution of employment were commencing, but had not yet influenced the marriage returns.

The tables show that each of the eleven great divisions of England contributed more or less to the deficiency of marriages, as compared with the same quarter of 1866; in the counties the numbers exhibit fluctuations, and the following even show an increase, namely, Hants, Bucks, Northampton, Bedford, Cambridge, Norfolk, Dorset, Rutland, Lincoln, and Cheshire.

BIRTHS.—The births of 190,255 children were registered in England during the summer quarter (July, August, September), a number greater than has ever been recorded during the same period, and 11,273 more than were registered in the summer of 1866. The average annual birth-rate of the season is 335 for 10,000 of the population; in the last quarter it reached the high proportion of 352. The increase is spread over each of the eleven divisions of the country, and the only counties which show a decrease are Northampton, Cambridge, Cornwall, Northumberland, and Monmouth.

ENGLAND :—*Annual Rates per Cent. of PERSONS MARRIED, BIRTHS, and DEATHS, during the Years 1861-67, and the QUARTERS of those Years.*

Calendar YEARS, 1861-67 :—General Percentage Results.

YEARS.....	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
Estmtd. Popln. } of England in thousands in middle of each Year.... }	21,430	—	21,210	20,991	20,772	20,554	20,336	20,119
Persons Mar- } ried Per ct. }	—	1·687	1·768	1·768	1·736	1·688	1·614	1·628
<i>Births</i> ,	—	3·493	3·551	3·564	3·564	3·539	3·504	3·461
<i>Deaths</i> ,	—	2·255	2·362	2·339	2·386	2·305	2·147	2·163

QUARTERS of each Calendar Year, 1861-67.

(I.) PERSONS MARRIED :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March Per ct.	1·382	1·400	1·442	1·428	1·472	1·408	1·360	1·346
June..... ,	1·704	1·718	1·838	1·754	1·724	1·726	1·614	1·678
Septmbr. ,	—	1·631	1·726	1·732	1·704	1·616	1·582	1·570
Decembr. ,	—	1·987	2·058	2·146	2·022	1·996	1·890	1·906

(II.) BIRTHS :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March Per ct.	3·713	3·663	3·776	3·765	3·740	3·691	3·644	3·500
June..... ,	3·742	3·619	3·644	3·692	3·651	3·700	3·665	3·690
Septmbr. ,	3·518	3·350	3·344	3·434	3·453	3·343	3·365	3·388
Decembr. ,	—	3·340	3·447	3·370	3·376	3·428	3·350	3·272

(III.) DEATHS :—*Percentages.*

<i>Qrs. ended last day of</i>	'67.	Mean '57-'66.	'66.	'65.	'64.	'63.	'62.	'61.
March Per ct.	2·551	2·551	2·653	2·723	2·772	2·538	2·443	2·453
June..... ,	2·109	2·218	2·437	2·217	2·260	2·308	2·121	2·147
Septmbr. ,	2·006	2·031	2·182	2·140	2·141	2·169	1·800	1·994
Decembr. ,	—	2·224	2·184	2·283	2·349	2·213	2·230	2·064

A comparison of the birth-rates in certain large towns shows that the highest was in Leeds, where it reached 433 in 10,000 of population. In Sheffield it was 409; in Salford 396; in Glasgow 394; in Liverpool 388; in Birmingham 377; and in Manchester 376.

INCREASE OF POPULATION.—The natural increase of population, as represented by the excess of births over deaths, amounted to 81,793 in the quarter, or an average of 889 daily.

A considerable number of persons, however, left these shores for various parts of the globe, and the returns from all ports in the United Kingdom, at which there are Government emigration officers, show that 45,278* (or an average of 492 daily) persons of native origin emigrated during the three months. Of these 34,853 went to the United States, 5,340 to British North America, 4,155 to the Australian colonies, and 930 to all other places. 17,983 of the emigrants were of English origin, 4,485 of Scotch, 22,810 of Irish. The number who left ports of the United Kingdom in the summer of 1867, exceeds by 8,654 the number who emigrated in the same period of 1866.

CONSOLS, PROVISIONS, PAUPERISM, and TEMPERATURE in each of the
Nine Quarters ended 30th September, 1867.

1	2	3	4		5	6	7		8	9
Quarters ending	Average Price of Consols (for Money).	Average Price of Wheat per Quarter in England and Wales.	Average Prices of Meat per lb. at Leadenhall and Newgate Markets (by the Carcase), with the <i>Mean</i> Prices.		Average Prices of Potatoes (York Regents) per Ton at Waterside Market, Southwark.	Pauperism.		Mean Tem- pera- ture.		
			Beef.	Mutton.		Quarterly Average of the Number of Paupers relieved on the <i>last day</i> of each week.	In-door.		Out-door.	
1865	£	s. d.	d. d. d.	d. d. d.	s. s. s.					
Sept. 30	89 ⁶ / ₈	43 3	4 ¹ / ₂ —7 5 ³ / ₄	6 ¹ / ₄ —8 ³ / ₄ 7 ¹ / ₂	65—100 85	117,172	719,589	62 ⁵ / ₁₀		
Dec. 31	88 ⁴ / ₈	44 10	4 ¹ / ₄ —7 5 ⁵ / ₈	5 ¹ / ₂ —8 ¹ / ₄ 6 ⁷ / ₈	60—90 75	129,036	725,259	46 ⁰ / ₁₀		
1866										
Mar. 31	87	45 6	4 ¹ / ₂ —6 ³ / ₄ 5 ⁵ / ₈	5 ¹ / ₂ —7 ³ / ₄ 6 ⁵ / ₈	55—90 72	139,546	759,402	41 ² / ₁₀		
June 30	86 ⁴ / ₈	46 6	4 ³ / ₄ —7 5 ⁷ / ₈	5 ¹ / ₂ —8 ¹ / ₂ 7	60—95 77	123,657	734,139	53 ⁰ / ₁₀		
Sept. 30	88 ³ / ₈	51 —	5 ¹ / ₄ —7 ¹ / ₄ 6 ¹ / ₈	5 ¹ / ₂ —8 ¹ / ₄ 6 ³ / ₄	75—120 97	120,955	717,553	58 ⁹ / ₁₀		
Dec. 31	89 ⁴ / ₈	56 8	4 ³ / ₄ —7 5 ⁷ / ₈	5 ¹ / ₄ —7 ¹ / ₂ 6 ³ / ₈	85—130 107	133,979	734,312	46 ² / ₁₀		
1867										
Mar. 31	90 ⁷ / ₈	60 7	4 ³ / ₄ —7 5 ⁷ / ₈	5—7 ¹ / ₄ 6 ¹ / ₈	115—160 137	147,620	832,364	38 ⁹ / ₁₀		
June 30	92 ⁴ / ₈	63 11	4 ³ / ₄ —6 ³ / ₄ 5 ³ / ₄	5 ¹ / ₄ —7 ¹ / ₄ 6 ¹ / ₄	135—175 155	134,678	779,629	53 ⁵ / ₁₀		
Sept. 30	94 ⁴ / ₈	65 4	4 ³ / ₄ —6 ³ / ₄ 5 ³ / ₄	5—7 6	100—155 127	129,838	743,977	59 ⁷ / ₁₀		

* Return with which the Registrar-General has been favoured by the Emigration Commissioners. Of 55,807 emigrants 9,936 were foreigners, and the origin was undistinguished in 2,973 cases which have been distributed by calculation.

PRICES, PAUPERISM, AND THE WEATHER.—A marked increase in the price of wheat has taken place during the three months, the average price per quarter having been 65s. 4*d.* as compared with 51s. in the summer of 1866, and 43s. 3*d.* in the same season of 1865; this represents a rise of 28 per cent. and 51 per cent. respectively. Potatoes are also 31 per cent. higher in price than in the summer of 1866. Influenced by the cessation of the cattle plague, and probably also by a smaller consumption consequent on the diminished earnings of the labouring classes, the wholesale price of meat, at Leadenhall and Newgate markets, has fallen since the quarter ending 30th September, 1866; the average price of beef has been 5*¼d.* per lb., and mutton 6*d.* per lb. during the quarter just ended; this is a decrease of 6 per cent. in beef and 11 per cent. in mutton compared with the same period of 1866. As some compensation for the higher price of bread and potatoes it may be hoped that consumers will obtain the full benefit of the diminished cost of meat.

Pauperism continues to show a considerable increase in the number of persons receiving in-door and out-door relief; the average numbers relieved on the last day of each week in three summer quarters were—

	In-door.	Out-door.
Quarter ending 30th September, 1865	117,172	719,589
" " '66	120,955	717,553
" " '67	129,838	743,977

Many interesting facts on the meteorological character of the past summer are related in detail by Mr. Glaisher in his report, which is subjoined. He states that "the cold period, which set in on 3rd June, continued throughout July, and extended to 7th August; the weather was changeable and very unsettled, there was little sunshine, and during the first week of August the temperature was unseasonably cold, and some of the nights frosty." The mean temperature at Greenwich was 59°·7, or about the average of the same season of 96 years. The rainfall was 11·3 inches in the three months, which is 3·9 inches above the average of 52 summer quarters.

DEATHS; AND THE STATE OF THE PUBLIC HEALTH.—The number of deaths registered in the three months that ended on 30th September was 108,462; and the annual rate of mortality was 20·06 in a thousand; the average rate of the season is 20·31, and in the same three months of 1866, when cholera was epidemic in London and other places, the rate was 21·82 per thousand. Fewer deaths have been registered, and the rate of mortality has been lower than in any corresponding quarter since 1862.

The summer has been favourable to health, and there has been no recurrence of epidemic cholera, although its prevalence has been remarked in some continental cities.

The death-rate experienced by about eleven millions of people inhabiting the chief towns was 22 per 1,000, while rather more than nine millions of persons residing in the small towns and country parishes had a mortality of somewhat less than 17 per 1,000; it is far from being the case that this latter population lives under conditions so favourable to health as not to be capable of improvement, but the higher mortality in the towns shows that much sanitary work remains there to be performed before a satisfactory state of public health can be attained.

In London and twelve other great towns in the United Kingdom, the annual death-rate during the quarter was 23·7 per 1,000; it was highest in Manchester 32, and lowest in Bristol 19 per 1,000; in London it was 21, Birmingham 26, Liverpool 29, Salford 28, Sheffield 24, Leeds 29, Hull 26, Newcastle-upon-Tyne 30, Edinburgh 23, Glasgow 24, and Dublin 23. The registrars in many of these towns allude to the prevalence of diarrhœa, measles, scarlatina, typhus, and whooping-cough.

The unhealthy condition of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, with its numerous unpaved streets, its cellars and underground kitchens standing seven or eight inches under water and liquid filth, has been referred to in previous reports, and, notwithstanding the sanitary improvements instituted by the newly appointed health committee, zymotic diseases have been fatally prevalent; in the All Saints sub-district, out of 229 deaths registered during the quarter, no less than 147 were those of children not exceeding 5 years of age; the hard working poor are described as crowding together, and in want of proper house accommodation; diseases generated in these localities spread among all classes of the population. The local authorities of this important town will probably see the necessity of appointing a permanent medical officer of health.

Average Annual Rate of Mortality to 1,000 of the Population in the Eleven Divisions of England in the Ten Years 1851-60; in the Year 1866; in the Summer, and Autumn Quarters of 1866; and in the Winter, Spring, and Summer Quarters of 1867.

Divisions.	Average Annual Rate of Mortality to 1,000 Living in						
	Ten Years, 1851-60.	1866.			1867.		
		Year.	Summer Quarter.	Autumn Quarter.	Winter Quarter.	Spring Quarter.	Summer Quarter.
I. London	23·63	26·30	28·86	24·38	26·78	20·17	20·73
II. South-Eastern counties ...	19·55	19·42	18·11	17·90	21·87	18·02	17·64
III. South Midland „ ...	20·44	20·14	17·62	19·07	24·02	19·87	18·34
IV. Eastern counties	20·58	20·13	18·10	17·62	22·27	19·43	17·24
V. South-Western counties ...	20·01	20·38	17·30	18·52	23·83	19·13	15·89
VI. West Midland „ ...	22·35	22·01	17·48	19·84	24·20	19·49	18·82
VII. North Midland „ ...	21·10	20·77	17·58	18·89	23·44	19·92	18·63
VIII. North-Western „ ...	25·51	29·21	27·31	26·96	29·44	24·06	23·76
IX. Yorkshire	23·09	25·63	22·03	23·28	26·58	23·45	22·65
X. Northern counties	21·99	23·90	21·95	25·27	27·23	23·83	23·19
XI. Monmouthshire and Wales	21·28	22·79	22·31	21·49	24·19	21·85	17·82

Note.—The above mortality for the year 1866 is the mean of the quarterly rates.

Salisbury continues to furnish an instance of the advantages resulting from good hygienic arrangements; it is more than six years since the census was taken, and the present population of towns can only be approximately estimated, but, assuming that Salisbury has increased in population since 1861 in the same annual ratio as in the previous ten years, then the mortality during the quarter has been at the low rate of 10 per 1,000 annually, a result as creditable to the authorities as it is satisfactory to the citizens, whose years of life are prolonged; that the healthiness of this city is mainly owing to the sanitary system now in operation, and not chiefly to advantages of situation, is proved by the fact that during the ten years 1841-50, the average annual number of deaths was 28 per 1,000 living, and in the following ten years it was 24 per 1,000; it also suffered severely from epidemic cholera in 1849.

ANNUAL RATE of MORTALITY *per Cent.* in TOWN and COUNTRY DISTRICTS
of ENGLAND in each Quarter of the Years 1867-65.

	Area in Statute Acres.	Population Enumerated. 1861.	Quarters ending	Annual Rate of Mortality per Cent. in each Quarter of the Years			
				1867.	Mean '57-66.	1866.	1865.
In 142 Districts, and 56 Sub-districts, comprising the <i>Chief Towns</i>}	3,287,151	10,930,841	March ..	2·732	2·738	2·967	2·883
			June	2·199	2·357	2·641	2·346
			Sept.	2·243	2·262	2·515	2·388
			Dec.	—	2·477	2·432	2·565
			Year	—	2·459	2·639	2·546
In the remaining Districts and Sub- districts of Eng- land and Wales, comprising chiefly <i>Small Towns</i> and <i>Country Parishes</i> }	34,037,732	9,135,383	Year	—	2·010	2·010	2·081
			March ..	2·315	2·326	2·252	2·522
			June	1·991	2·050	2·170	2·055
			Sept.	1·696	1·750	1·755	1·824
			Dec.	—	1·916	1·863	1·923

Note.—The three months, January, February, March, contain 90, in leap year 91 days; the three months, April, May, June, 91 days; each of the last two quarters of the year 92 days. For this inequality a correction has been made in the calculations, also for the difference between 365 and 365·25 days, and 366 and 365·25 days in leap year.

Of the eleven great divisions of England the rate of mortality during the quarter was lowest (15·9 per 1,000) in the south-western counties, and highest (23·8 per 1,000) in Cheshire and Lancashire; the tables show the proportion in each of the other divisions.

POPULATION; BIRTHS, DEATHS; MEAN TEMPERATURE and RAINFALL in last Summer
Quarter, in Thirteen Large Towns.

Cities, &c.	Estimated Population in the Middle of the Year 1867.	Births in 13 Weeks ending 28th Sept., 1867.	Deaths in 13 Weeks ending 28th Sept., 1867.	Annual Rate to 1,000 Living during the 13 Weeks ending 28th Sept., 1867.		Mean Temperature in 13 Weeks ending 28th Sept., 1867.	Rainfall in Inches in 13 Weeks ending 28th Sept., 1867.
				Births.	Deaths.		
Total of 13 large towns....	6,187,764	56,023	36,573	36·34	23·72	58·0	8·9
London	3,082,372	27,254	16,337	35·49	20·73	59·7	11·3
Bristol (city)	165,572	1,487	790	36·05	19·15	59·0	6·1
Birmingham (borough)....	343,948	3,227	2,213	37·66	25·82	59·5	8·6
Liverpool (borough)	492,439	4,762	3,502	38·81	28·54	59·8	6·7
Manchester (city)	362,823	3,398	2,855	37·59	31·58	57·7	10·4
Salford (borough)	115,013	1,136	814	39·64	28·41	57·7	
Sheffield (borough)	225,199	2,296	1,337	40·92	23·83	56·9	
Leeds (borough).....	232,428	2,508	1,664	43·31	28·73	58·7	9·0
Hull (borough)	106,740	972	688	36·55	25·87	56·6	8·3
Newcastle - on - Tyne } (borough)	124,960	1,139	920	36·58	29·55	56·9	7·2
Edinburgh (city)	176,081	1,530	1,007	34·88	22·95	56·6	8·2
Glasgow (city)	440,979	4,324	2,636	39·36	23·99	56·2	9·1
Dublin (city and some } suburbs)	319,210	1,990	1,810	25·02	22·76	58·5	13·5
							6·1

ENGLAND:—MARRIAGES *Registered in Quarters ended 30th June, 1867-65; and BIRTHS and DEATHS in Quarters ended 30th September, 1867-65.*

1 DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	2 AREA in Statute Acres.	3 POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	4 5 6 MARRIAGES in Quarters ended 30th June.		
			'67.	'66.	'65.
ENGLD. & WALES....Totals	37,324,883	No. 20,066,224	No. 45,462	No. 48,523	No. 45,827
I. London	77,997	2,803,989	8,224	8,737	8,271
II. South-Eastern	4,065,935	1,847,661	3,730	3,829	3,572
III. South Midland	3,201,290	1,295,515	2,205	2,227	2,151
IV. Eastern	3,214,099	1,142,562	1,703	1,729	1,858
V. South-Western	4,993,660	1,835,714	3,317	3,677	3,655
VI. West Midland	3,865,332	2,436,568	5,198	5,925	5,482
VII. North Midland	3,540,797	1,288,928	3,141	3,174	3,031
VIII. North-Western	2,000,227	2,935,540	7,479	8,005	6,950
IX. Yorkshire	3,654,636	2,015,541	4,867	5,140	5,018
X. Northern	3,492,322	1,151,372	2,788	3,137	2,886
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	5,218,588	1,312,834	2,810	2,943	2,971

7 DIVISIONS. (England and Wales.)	8 9 10 BIRTHS in Quarters ended 30th September.			11 12 13 DEATHS in Quarters ended 30th September.		
	'67.	'66.	'65.	'67.	'66.	'65.
ENGLD. & WALES....Totals	No. 190,255	No. 178,982	No. 181,941	No. 108,462	No. 116,826	No. 113,362
I. London	27,254	25,776	25,965	16,337	22,353	16,881
II. South-Eastern	16,478	15,197	15,608	8,900	9,025	9,328
III. South Midland	11,311	10,722	10,967	6,176	5,904	6,657
IV. Eastern	9,409	8,702	9,015	5,044	5,282	5,703
V. South-Western	14,389	13,481	14,220	7,436	8,081	7,967
VI. West Midland	23,512	22,134	22,427	12,561	11,517	12,638
VII. North Midland	11,493	10,847	11,286	6,282	5,894	6,789
VIII. North-Western	30,666	28,366	28,247	19,522	22,069	20,354
IX. Yorkshire	21,212	19,658	20,304	12,409	11,925	13,448
X. Northern	12,406	12,164	12,203	7,507	6,985	7,121
XI. Monmthsh. & Wales	12,125	11,935	11,699	6,288	7,791	6,476

REMARKS ON THE WEATHER

DURING THE QUARTER ENDING 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1867.

By JAMES GLAISHER, ESQ., F.R.S., &c., President of the Meteorological Society.

The cold period which set in on 3rd June continued throughout July, and extended to 7th August; during this time the weather was changeable and very unsettled; the amount of cloud was great, there was very little sunshine; and during the first week in August the temperature was unseasonably cold, some of the nights were frosty. From the beginning of the quarter to 7th August the deficiency of temperature was more than 3° daily on the average. From 8th August to the end of the quarter the weather was better; at about the middle of August there were a few days of hot weather, but generally the temperature was but little in excess above the average, and frequently for two or three days together was below. For the 54 days ending 30th September, the average excess of temperature was $1\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ daily.

Vegetation at the end of July was in a backward state, and the crops in many localities had sustained considerable damage from heavy rain. On Thursday night, 25th July, heavy rain began to fall all over the south of England, continuing almost uninterruptedly next day; the amount registered varied from $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch to $3\frac{3}{4}$ inches, being the heaviest rain-fall in the space of a day I have ever known. The crops were extensively laid. The Thames and its tributaries overflowed their banks; and in other parts the rivers flooded the neighbouring land, inundating the crops in some places. The harvest prospect at the end of July was unpromising; in the most forward south-eastern districts a partial corn reaping had begun.

In August the crops greatly improved by the fine weather in the middle of the month, and but little rain fell in England, but it fell very nearly daily in Scotland, sometimes heavily, where the crops were extensively laid and continued quite green. At the end of the quarter the harvest in England was nearly completed, and was nearly so in Ireland, but in Scotland about one-third of the crops remained uncut.

The hay crop is said to be one of the heaviest and best secured for many years. The potato crop is large in bulk, but the disease is much complained of, particularly in Scotland.

The mean temperature of July was $59^{\circ}\cdot4$, being $2^{\circ}\cdot0$ lower than the average of the preceding 96 years, and lower than that of any year since 1841, excepting 1862, which was $59^{\circ}\cdot1$.

The mean temperature of August was $62^{\circ}\cdot0$, being $1^{\circ}\cdot3$ higher than the average of the preceding 96 years, and higher than that of any year since 1861.

The mean temperature of September was $57^{\circ}\cdot6$, being $1^{\circ}\cdot1$ higher than the average of 96 years, and $1^{\circ}\cdot2$ higher than that of last year.

The mean high day temperature was $2^{\circ}\cdot6$ below the average in July, and respectively $0^{\circ}\cdot7$ and $0^{\circ}\cdot4$ above in August and September.

The mean low night temperature was $2^{\circ}\cdot1$ below the average in July, and respectively $0^{\circ}\cdot4$ and $1^{\circ}\cdot2$ above the average in August and September.

Therefore in July both the nights and days were cold, and in August and September were somewhat warm.

The daily ranges of temperature were respectively 0°·6, and 0°·8 lower than the average in July and September, and 0°·3 higher in August.

The fall of rain was 3·2 in. above the average in July, 0·2 in. above the average in August, and 0·5 in. above the average in September. Of the large amount of rain which fell in July, namely, 5·8 in., the great quantity of 3·7 in. fell on one day, the 26th.

The mean temperature of the air at Greenwich in the three months ending August, constituting the three summer months, was 59°·8, being 0°·8 below the average of the preceding 26 years.

1867. Months.		Temperature of									Elastic Force of Vapour.		Weight of Vapour in a Cubic Foot of Air.					
		Air.			Evaporation.		Dew Point.		Air— Daily Range.						Water of the Thames			
		Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 96 Years.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.								
July.....	59·4	0	−2·0	−2·3	55·3	0	−2·0	51·7	0	−2·0	20·3	0	−0·6	63·1	In. ·384	In. −·029	Gr. 4·3	Gr. −0·3
Aug.....	62·0	0	+1·3	+0·8	58·5	0	+1·2	55·5	0	+1·8	19·9	0	+0·3	63·5	·441	+·024	4·9	+0·3
Sept. ...	57·6	0	+1·1	+0·5	54·5	0	+0·5	51·6	0	+0·5	17·7	0	−0·8	60·0	·382	+·001	4·3	+0·1
Mean ...	59·7	0	+0·1	−0·3	56·1	0	−0·1	52·9	0	+0·1	19·3	0	−0·4	62·2	·402	−·001	4·5	0·0

1867. Months.		Degree of Humidity.		Reading of Barometer.		Weight of a Cubic Foot of Air.		Rain.		Daily Hori- zontal Move- ment of the Air.	Reading of Thermometer on Grass.				
		Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Mean.	Diff. from Aver- age of 26 Years.	Amnt.	Diff. from Aver- age of 52 Years.		Number of Nights it was			Low- est Read- ing at Night.	High- est Read- ing at Night.
											At or below 30°.	Be- tween 30° and 40°.	Above 40°.		
July.....	76	0	In. 29·730	In. −·072	Gr. 530	Gr. − 2	In. 5·8	In. +3·2	Miles. 250	0	5	26	° 37·4	° 57·2	
Aug.....	80	+ 3	29·829	+·044	528	− 1	2·6	+0·2	199	0	1	30	34·1	58·6	
Sept. ...	81	0	29·915	+·097	535	− 1	2·9	+0·5	267	0	7	23	33·1	60·0	
Mean ...	79	+ 1	29·825	+·023	531	− 1	Sum 11·3	Sum +3·9	Mean 239	Sum 0	Sum 13	Sum 79	Lowest 33·1	Highest 60·0	

Note.—In reading this table it will be borne in mind that the sign (−) minus signifies below the average, and that the sign (+) plus signifies above the average.

ENGLAND:—*Meteorological Table, Quarter ended 30th September, 1867.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
NAMES OF STATIONS.	Mean Pressure of Dry Air reduced to the Level of the Sea.	Highest Reading of the Thermo- meter.	Lowest Reading of the Thermo- meter.	Range of Tem- perature in the Quarter.	Mean Monthly Range of Tem- perature.	Mean Daily Range of Tem- perature.	Mean Tem- perature of the Air.	Mean Degree of Hu- midity.
	in.	°	°	°	°	°	°	
Guernsey	29·615	80·5	48·0	32·5	25·5	9·4	59·0	84
Barnstaple	29·572	85·6	40·5	45·1	37·4	15·6	60·5	79
Royal Observatory	29·603	89·0	35·5	53·5	43·6	19·3	59·7	79
Royston	29·616	91·2	38·9	52·3	44·5	19·7	58·8	79
Llandudno	—	88·0	42·8	45·2	35·3	14·6	59·6	78
Derby	29·570	87·0	38·0	49·0	37·7	17·0	57·8	82
Liverpool	29·566	86·2	43·4	42·8	33·8	13·5	58·0	82
Wakefield	29·592	89·0	37·5	51·5	41·4	18·3	58·8	71
Stonyhurst	29·551	83·7	34·6	49·1	38·6	15·4	56·7	82
North Shields ...	29·626	73·0	41·5	31·1	26·2	11·2	54·7	81

10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
NAMES OF STATIONS.	WIND.					Mean Amount of Cloud.	RAIN.	
	Mean estimated Strength.	Relative Proportion of					Number of Days on which it fell.	Amount collected.
		N.	E.	S.	W.			
Guernsey	1·3	8	6	7	10	4·4	33	in. 9·2
Barnstaple	0·9	4	4	11	12	3·2	46	8·1
Royal Observatory	0·3	4	4	12	11	6·5	35	11·4
Royston	—	6	2	12	11	5·7	39	7·9
Llandudno	0·5	5	6	1	19	6·5	41	8·9
Derby	—	4	5	8	14	—	42	9·0
Liverpool	1·8	5	4	7	15	6·1	50	6·8
Wakefield	1·4	5	5	8	13	5·9	36	8·4
Stonyhurst	0·7	5	5	9	12	7·9	59	13·8
North Shields ...	1·3	7	4	7	13	6·1	41	7·3

No. II.—SCOTLAND.

MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS IN THE QUARTER
ENDED 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1867.

Scotland, for the purposes of registration, is divided into 1,016 districts; and this return comprises the BIRTHS, DEATHS, and MARRIAGES registered in these during the quarter ending 30th September, 1867. From these it would appear that the births and marriages have been somewhat above the average of the corresponding quarter of the ten previous years; while the deaths have been the merest fraction below it.

BIRTHS.—27,888 births were registered in Scotland during the third quarter of the year 1867, being in the annual proportion of 351 births in every 10,000 persons of the estimated population, or one birth to every 28 persons. The average birth-rate of the quarter during the ten previous years, was 338 births to every 10,000 persons (Table III), so that the birth-rate has been considerably above the average. The English birth-rate during the third quarter of this year was exactly the same as that of Scotland, viz., 351 births in every 10,000 of the population, 190,255 births having been registered during the quarter. As the average English birth-rate for the quarter was 335 births in every 10,000 persons, their birth-rate during the past quarter was also high above its average.

TABLE I.—*Number of Births, Deaths, and Marriages in Scotland, and in the Town and Country Districts during the Quarter ending 30th September, 1867, and their Proportion to the Population; also the Number of Illegitimate Births, and their Proportion to the Total Births.*

	Population.		Total Births.			Illegitimate Births.		
	Census, 1861.	Estimated, 1867.	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every
SCOTLAND	3,066,633	3,170,769	27,888	3·51	28	2,795	10·0	9·9
126 town districts	1,619,614	1,718,968	16,482	3·83	26	1,649	10·0	9·9
890 rural ,,	1,447,019	1,451,801	11,406	3·14	32	1,146	10·0	9·9

	Population.		Deaths.			Marriages.		
	Census, 1861.	Estimated, 1867.	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every	Number.	Per Cent.	Ratio. One in every
SCOTLAND	3,066,633	3,170,769	15,106	1·90	52	5,047	0·63	175
126 town districts	1,619,614	1,718,968	9,827	2·22	43	3,567	0·83	120
890 rural ,,	1,447,019	1,451,801	5,279	1·45	69	1,480	0·40	245

Note.—The constitution of several of the districts was altered on January 1, 1867; consequently the numbers of the population in the town and rural districts differ somewhat from those of previous years.

The town and rural districts exhibited the usual difference in the proportion of their births. Thus, in the 126 town districts (which embrace the towns which, in 1861 had 3,000 inhabitants and upwards), 16,482 births were registered; while in the 890 rural districts (embracing the remainder of the population of Scotland), only 11,406 births occurred. This indicates an annual proportion of 383 births in every 10,000 persons in the town, but only 314 births in a like population in the rural districts.

Of the 27,888 births, 25,093 were legitimate, and 2,795 illegitimate; indicating that exactly 10 per cent. of the births were illegitimate. In general, the proportion of illegitimate births is highest in the rural districts; but during the past quarter the proportion has been identical in town and rural districts. Table II exhibits the proportion of illegitimate births in the several divisions and counties of Scotland, and accords generally with previous returns. Eleven of the counties furnished above 12 per cent. of illegitimate births, viz., Roxburgh, 12·7 per cent., Dumfries, 13·4, Elgin, 13·8, Perth, 14·2, Banff, 14·3, Berwick, 15·1, Aberdeen, 15·2, Kincardine and Kirkcudbright each 15·8, Peebles, 17, and Wigtown, 18·2 per cent.

Of the children born during the quarter, 14,329 were boys, and 13,559 girls, being in the proportion of 105·7 boys for every 100 girls. 9,933 of the births were registered during July, 9,250 during August, and 8,705 during September; being at the rate of 320 births daily during July, 300 daily during August, and 290 daily during September.

TABLE II.—*Proportion of Illegitimate in every Hundred Births in the Division and Counties of Scotland, during the Quarter ending 30th September, 1867.*

Divisions.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.	Counties.	Per Cent. of Illegitimate.
SCOTLAND	10·0						
Northern	4·3	Shetland	1·5	Forfar	11·0	Lanark	8·8
North-Western	5·8	Orkney	3·2	Perth	14·2	Linlithgow ..	7·1
North-Eastern	14·7	Caithness	7·9	Fife	8·6	Edinburgh ..	10·8
East Midland ..	10·7	Sutherland....	3·7	Kinross	7·8	Haddington ..	11·0
West Midland.	7·4	Ross and } Cromarty }	4·3	Clackman- } nan	7·1	Berwick	15·1
South-Western	8·7	Inverness	7·2	Stirling	8·4	Peebles	17·0
South-Eastern.	10·8	Nairn	3·1	Dumbarton ..	7·7	Selkirk	9·0
Southern	14·6	Elgin	13·8	Argyll	5·9	Roxburgh ..	12·9
		Banff	14·3	Bute	5·4	Dumfries	13·4
		Aberdeen	15·2	Renfrew	7·7	Kirkcud- } bright .. }	15·8
		Kincardine....	15·8	Ayr	9·2	Wigtown	18·2

DEATHS.—15,106 deaths were registered in Scotland during the third quarter of 1867, being in the annual proportion of 190 deaths in every 10,000 persons of the estimated population. The death-rate of the third quarter during the ten previous years, was 191 deaths in every 10,000 persons, so that the death-rate of the past quarter has been the merest fraction lower than the average. In England, also during the third quarter, the death-rate has been slightly below the average; for the registered deaths amounted to 108,462, which gives the annual proportion of 200 deaths in every 10,000 persons, the average of the quarter during the ten previous years having been 203 deaths in a like population.

The deaths in the towns, as usual, greatly exceeded those in the rural districts. Thus, of the 15,106 deaths in Scotland, 9,827 occurred in the 126 town districts,

5,279 in the rural districts. This indicates an annual death-rate of 222 deaths in every 10,000 persons in the town, but only 145 deaths in a like population in the rural districts. Thus, year after year, and quarter after quarter, the death-rate of the towns is one-third higher than it is in the country.

5,438 of the deaths, were registered during July, 4,958 during August, and 4,710 during September; showing that 175 deaths occurred daily during July, 160 daily during August, and 157 daily during September.

TABLE III.—*Number of Births, Deaths, and Marriages in Scotland, and their Proportion to the Population, Estimated to the Middle of each Year, during each Quarter of the Years 1867 to 1863 inclusive.*

	1867.		1866.		1865.		1864.		1863.	
	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.
<i>1st Quarter—</i>										
Births	27,969	3·52	28,876	3·66	28,608	3·65	28,177	3·61	26,733	3·44
Deaths	19,981	2·51	19,075	2·42	20,786	2·65	22,576	2·89	19,229	2·47
Marriages ..	5,332	0·66	5,627	0·71	5,407	0·69	5,333	0·68	5,126	0·66
Mean Tem- perature }	36°·5		38°·0		35°·3		35°·7		40°·9	
<i>2nd Quarter—</i>										
Births	30,393	3·83	29,801	3·78	30,332	3·86	29,992	3·84	29,655	3·82
Deaths	17,464	2·20	18,556	2·35	17,066	2·17	18,445	2·36	17,963	2·31
Marriages ..	5,602	0·70	6,019	0·76	5,698	0·72	5,710	0·73	5,594	0·71
Mean Tem- perature }	49°·0		49°·3		51°·5		49°·9		49°·0	
<i>3rd Quarter—</i>										
Births	27,888	3·51	27,197	3·45	27,320	3·48	27,063	3·47	26,366	3·40
Deaths	15,106	1·90	15,451	1·95	15,907	2·02	16,131	2·06	16,273	2·09
Marriages ..	5,047	0·63	5,089	0·64	5,335	0·68	4,993	0·64	4,900	0·62
Mean Tem- perature }	55°·2		54°·4		57°·5		54°·5		53°·9	
<i>4th Quarter—</i>										
Births	—	—	27,765	3·52	26,866	3·42	27,213	3·49	26,587	3·42
Deaths	—	—	18,191	2·30	17,072	2·17	17,151	2·19	18,016	2·32
Marriages ..	—	—	6,894	0·87	7,137	0·91	6,639	0·85	6,614	0·84
Mean Tem- perature }	—		43°·5		43°·4		42°·0		43°·6	
<i>Year—</i>										
Population.	—		3,153,413		3,136,057		3,118,701		3,101,345	
Births	—	—	113,639	3·60	113,126	3·60	112,445	3·60	109,341	3·52
Deaths	—	—	71,273	2·26	70,821	2·25	74,303	2·38	71,481	2·30
Marriages ..	—	—	23,629	0·75	23,577	0·75	22,675	0·72	22,234	0·71

INCREASE OF THE POPULATION.—As the births numbered 27,888, and the deaths 15,106, the natural increase of the population by excess of births over deaths was 12,782. From that number, however, ought to be deducted all the Scottish emigrants. From a return furnished by the Emigration Commissioners, it appears that 55,807 persons emigrated from the ports of Great Britain and Ireland, at which there are emigration offices, during the quarter ending 30th September, 1867. Of that number 17,044 were of English origin, 21,583 Irish, 4,271 Scotch, and 9,936 foreigners; while the origin of 2,973 was not ascertained. If 240 be allowed as the Scottish proportion of those whose origin was not ascertained, the total Scottish emigrants would amount to 4,511; and that number, deducted from the excess of births over deaths, would leave 8,271 as the increase of the population during the quarter, making no allowance for the considerable emigration which goes on from the other ports of Scotland, nor for the emigration to England, Ireland, &c.

MARRIAGES.—5,047 marriages were registered in Scotland during the third quarter of 1867, being in the annual proportion of 63 marriages in every 10,000 persons of the estimated population. The average marriage-rate of the quarter during the ten previous years was 61 marriages in a like population, so that the marriage-rate of the past quarter has been above the average.

In the 126 town districts, 3,567 marriages were registered, but only 1,480 marriages in the 890 rural districts; indicating a proportion of 83 marriages in every 10,000 persons in the town, but only 40 marriages in a like population in the rural districts.

Of the 5,047 marriages, 2,251 were registered in July, 1,413 in August, and 1,383 in September.

HEALTH OF THE POPULATION.—The health of the population during the third quarter of 1867 was good, and the mortality, both in the town and rural districts fell below the mean of the ten previous years. No particular epidemic prevailed; fever was everywhere dying out; and although several sporadic cases of autumnal cholera occurred, as always happens during the months of autumn, it nowhere assumed the epidemic type. The usual epidemic diseases of children were not more common than usual, and were generally of a mild type. The efficiency of the Vaccination Act in Scotland seems to be indicated by the fact that very few cases of small-pox have been reported from any part of the country.

WEATHER.—July was a warm, genial dry month, till the 13th, when a rainy period set in, the rain continuing to fall in very heavy showers, and almost constantly, till the 24th. In many places on the 21st, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 inches of rain fell in twenty-four hours. This rainy period was followed by a cold period, which continued till the close of the month; and the cold east winds which then prevailed so reduced the temperature, that the mean temperature of the month fell two degrees below the average of former years.

August was the warmest month of the year; but there was a great deficiency of sunshine, from the sky being more clouded than usual. The humidity also of the atmosphere was greater than ordinary, both from the unusual prevalence of cloud preventing free radiation, and from the frequent showers which fell.

September differed very little in its weather from the ordinary character of that month in former years, and was four degrees of mean temperature below August.

Excepting when the temperature rises very high in July or August, and induces bowel complaints, it usually happens in Scotland that the mortality decreases month by month from February to September. The present year proved no exception. June, with its mean temperature of $65^{\circ}3$, caused 174 deaths daily; July, with a mean temperature of $54^{\circ}8$ caused 175 deaths daily; August, with its mean temperature of $57^{\circ}4$, caused 160 deaths daily; and September, with its mean temperature of $53^{\circ}4$, caused 157 deaths daily.

The mean barometric pressure, reduced to the sea-level and to 32° Fahr., was 29·861 inches in July, 29·856 inches in August, and 29·931 inches in September. The mean temperature of the quarter was 55°·2; being 54°·8 in July, 57°·4 in August, and 53°·4 in September. The highest temperature noted at any station was 83° in July, 85° in August, and 72° in September. The lowest temperature noted at any station, in the protected thermometer, was 33°·7 in July, 35°·3 in August, and 30°·3 in September; but in the black bulb thermometer exposed on the grass during the night, the lowest temperature noted was 26° in July and August, and 21° in September. The mean of the day temperatures was 61°·3 in July, 64°·5 in August, and 59°·3 in September. The mean of the night temperatures was 48°·4 in July, 50°·8 in August and 47°·6 in September. The mean daily range of temperature was 12°·9 in July, 13°·7 in August, and 11°·7 in September. The number of days on which rain fell was 14 in July, 15 in August, and 16 in September; and the mean depth of rain which fell was 4·38 inches in July, 2·82 inches in August, and 3·17 inches in September. The mean humidity of the atmosphere was 84° in July, 86° in August, and 87° in September—full saturation of the atmosphere with moisture being reckoned 100°. Winds with an easterly point blew 13 days in July, 5 days in August, and 5 in September. Winds with a westerly point blew 9 days in July, 18 days in August, and 16 in September.

SCOTLAND:—MARRIAGES, BIRTHS, and DEATHS Registered in the Quarter ended 30th September, 1867.

1	2	3	4	5	6
DIVISIONS. (Scotland)	AREA in Statute Acres.	POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
		No.	No.	No.	No.
SCOTLAND Totals	19,639,377	3,062,294	5,047	27,888	15,106
I. Northern	2,261,622	130,422	77	876	399
II. North-Western	4,739,876	167,329	99	1,121	553
III. North-Eastern	2,429,594	366,783	508	3,136	1,443
IV. East Midland	2,790,492	523,822	823	4,527	2,519
V. West Midland	2,693,176	242,507	278	1,933	1,104
VI. South-Western	1,462,397	1,008,253	2,194	10,745	6,054
VII. South-Eastern	1,192,524	408,962	837	3,878	2,174
VIII. Southern	2,069,696	214,216	231	1,672	860

No. III.—IRELAND.

The Quarterly Report was not issued in time for publication in this *Journal*. To complete the summary of the United Kingdom, the Registrar-General for Ireland has kindly supplied the figures entered below for that country.

No. IV.—GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

SUMMARY of MARRIAGES, in the Quarter ended 30th June, 1867; and BIRTHS and DEATHS, in the Quarter ended 30th September, 1867.

COUNTRIES.	AREA in Statute Acres.	POPULATION, 1861. (Persons.)	Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
		No.	No.	No.	No.
England and Wales	37,324,883	20,066,224	45,462	190,255	108,462
Scotland	19,639,377	3,062,294	5,602	27,888	15,106
Ireland	20,322,641	5,798,967	5,166	34,248	18,549
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND }	77,286,901	28,927,485	56,230	252,391	142,117

Trade of United Kingdom, 1867-66-65.—Distribution of Exports from United Kingdom, according to the Declared Real Value of the Exports; and the Computed Real Value (Ex-duty) of Imports at Port of Entry, and therefore including Freight and Importer's Profit.

Merchandise (<i>excluding Gold and Silver</i>), Imported from, and Exported to, the following Foreign Countries, &c. [000's omitted.]	First Six Months.					
	1867.		1866.		1865.	
	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to
I.—FOREIGN COUNTRIES:	£	£	£	£	£	£
Northern Europe; viz., Russia, Sweden, Norway, Denmark & Iceland, & Heligoland	9,017,	2,627,	7,329,	2,379,	5,719,	2,102,
Central Europe; viz., Prussia, Germany, the Hanse Towns, Holland, and Belgium	17,229,	16,217,	16,257,	13,502,	14,028,	12,007,
Western Europe; viz., France, Portugal (with Azores, Madeira, &c.), and Spain (with Gibraltar and Canaries)	20,973,	8,669,	23,249,	8,142,	16,037,	7,189,
Southern Europe; viz., Italy, Austrian Empire, Greece, Ionian Islands, and Malta	2,193,	3,693,	3,020,	3,760,	1,950,	3,719,
Eastern; viz., Turkey, with Wallachia and Moldavia, Syria and Palestine, and Egypt	11,074,	7,321,	10,619,	8,944,	11,470,	5,627,
Northern Africa; viz., Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria and Morocco	133,	158,	205,	171,	146,	97,
Western Africa	605,	405,	487,	289,	427,	280,
Eastern Africa; with African Ports on Red Sea, Aden, Arabia, Persia, Bourbon, and Kooria Moorla Islands	14,	59,	66,	132,	62,	35,
Indian Seas, Siam, Sumatra, Java, Philippines; other Islands	315,	1,282,	325,	1,243,	836,	996,
South Sea Islands	8,	20,	44,	100,	8,	26,
China, including Hong Kong	4,569,	3,894,	5,831,	4,817,	6,024,	3,215,
United States of America	25,780,	11,951,	30,839,	15,228,	4,339,	6,215,
Mexico and Central America	479,	380,	293,	626,	2,281,	1,193,
Western West Indies and Hayti	2,545,	1,383,	1,321,	1,478,	2,022,	1,658,
South America (Northern), New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador	653,	1,259,	941,	1,609,	795,	1,417,
„ (Pacific), Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and Patagonia	3,473,	2,238,	2,685,	1,147,	3,312,	1,604,
„ (Atlantic) Brazil, Uruguay, and Buenos Ayres	4,334,	4,760,	5,096,	5,851,	3,346,	4,007,
Whale Fisheries; Grnlnd., Davis' Straits, Southn. Whale Fishery, & Falkland Islands	16,	1,	9,	9,	7,	4,
Total—Foreign Countries	103,410,	66,317,	108,616,	69,427,	72,809,	51,391,
II.—BRITISH POSSESSIONS:						
British India, Ceylon, and Singapore	10,141,	11,542,	18,520,	1,0842,	11,607,	11,191,
Stral. Cols.—New South Wales and Victoria	5,141,	2,905,	4,679,	4,566,	3,640,	4,407,
„ „ So. Aus., W. Aus., Tasm., and N. Zealand	2,219,	1,392,	1,545,	2,203,	1,179,	1,918,
British North America	802,	2,393,	820,	2,969,	869,	1,705,
„ W. Indies with Btsh. Guiana & Honduras	2,642,	1,280,	2,719,	1,385,	3,887,	1,493,
„ Cape and Natal	1,178,	1,014,	953,	589,	975,	1,097,
„ W. Co. of Af., Ascension and St. Helena	186,	330,	240,	311,	227,	204,
„ Mauritius	646,	208,	1,054,	302,	630,	322,
„ Channel Islands	193,	232,	232,	264,	194,	401,
Total—British Possessions	23,148,	21,296,	30,762,	23,431,	23,208,	22,738,
General Total	£ 126,558,	87,613,	139,378,	92,858,	96,017,	74,129,

IMPORTS. — (United Kingdom.) — **First Eight Months** (*January — August*),
1867-66-65-64-63.—*Computed Real Value (Ex-duty), at Port of Entry (and
therefore including Freight and Importer's Profit), of Articles of Foreign and
Colonial Merchandise Imported into the United Kingdom.*

(First Eight Months.) [000's omitted.] FOREIGN ARTICLES IMPORTED.		1867.	1866.	1865.	1864.	1863.
		£	£	£	£	£
RAW MATLS.— <i>Textile.</i>	Cotton Wool	39,753,	58,205,	29,944,	50,504,	26,862,
	Wool (Sheep's) ..	12,747,	12,559,	10,388,	10,789,	7,921,
	Silk	10,099,	9,168,	9,541,	7,434,	9,502,
	Flax	2,544,	3,005,	3,048,	3,856,	2,262,
	Hemp	1,623,	2,182,	1,546,	2,934,	1,796,
	Indigo	2,130,	1,851,	1,757,	1,777,	1,926,
		68,896,	86,970,	56,224,	77,294,	50,269,
" " <i>Various.</i>	Hides	1,642,	1,979,	1,634,	1,604,	1,868,
	Oils	2,585,	2,532,	2,206,	1,849,	2,512,
	Metals	2,488,	3,218,	2,724,	2,828,	2,345,
	Tallow	749,	1,233,	851,	711,	853,
	Timber.....	3,405,	4,564,	6,213,	5,523,	5,669,
		10,869,	13,526,	13,628,	12,515,	13,247,
" " <i>Agricul.</i>	Guano	1,164,	921,	1,686,	756,	2,022,
	Seeds	1,587,	1,694,	2,066,	2,138,	1,880,
		2,751,	2,615,	3,752,	2,894,	3,902,
TROPICAL &c., PRODUCE.	Tea	4,942,	6,091,	5,287,	5,435,	6,670,
	Coffee	2,679,	2,457,	2,566,	2,254,	2,557,
	Sugar & Molasses	9,743,	8,756,	8,341,	11,336,	9,707,
	Tobacco	917,	1,229,	1,514,	1,390,	1,059,
	Rice	504,	449,	357,	588,	772,
	Fruits	265,	89,	201,	115,	153,
	Wines	3,202,	3,335,	2,456,	3,731,	2,874,
	Spirits	1,209,	1,294,	1,011,	1,544,	1,207,
		23,461,	23,700,	21,733,	26,393,	24,999,
FOOD	Grain and Meal.	25,581,	18,898,	11,168,	12,601,	17,605,
	Provisions	5,759,	6,210,	6,061,	5,753,	5,230,
		31,340,	25,108,	17,229,	18,354,	22,835,
Remainder of Enumerated Articles		4,131,	3,893,	3,104,	3,562,	2,806,
TOTAL ENUMERATED IMPORTS		141,448,	155,812,	115,670,	141,012,	118,058,
Add for UNENUMERATED IMPORTS (say)		37,112,	38,953,	18,917,	35,253,	29,514,
TOTAL IMPORTS		178,560,	194,765,	144,587,	176,265,	147,572,

EXPORTS.—(United Kingdom.)—First Nine Months (*January—September*),
1867-66-65-64-63.—*Declared Real Value, at Port of Shipment, of Articles of*
BRITISH and IRISH Produce and Manufactures Exported from United Kingdom.

(First Nine Months.) [000's omitted.] BRITISH PRODUCE, &c., EXPORTED.		1867.	1866.	1865.	1864.	1863.
		£	£	£	£	£
MANFRS.— <i>Textile</i> . Cotton Manufactures ..		42,123,	46,100,	33,628,	35,648,	27,192,
	„ Yarn	10,923,	9,927,	7,311,	7,278,	5,463,
Woollen Manufactures		15,991,	16,790,	14,484,	14,915,	10,973,
	„ Yarn	4,491,	3,290,	3,984,	4,214,	3,702,
Silk Manufactures.....		1,159,	1,349,	1,445,	1,605,	1,503,
	„ Yarn	146,	173,	214,	199,	215,
Linen Manufactures		5,781,	7,260,	6,464,	6,123,	4,555,
	„ Yarn.....	1,917,	1,745,	1,806,	2,387,	1,775,
		82,531,	86,634,	69,336,	72,369,	65,378,
<i>Sewed</i> . Apparel		1,588,	2,046,	1,831,	1,801,	1,935,
Haberdy. and Mlnry.		3,541,	4,308,	3,644,	3,793,	3,131,
		5,129,	6,354,	5,475,	5,594,	5,066,
METALS Hardware		2,934,	3,310,	3,138,	3,082,	2,669,
Machinery		3,748,	3,354,	3,862,	3,363,	3,031,
Iron		11,586,	11,289,	9,666,	10,393,	9,676,
Copper and Brass.....		2,296,	2,203,	2,389,	2,677,	3,072,
Lead and Tin		2,639,	2,559,	2,058,	2,241,	2,138,
Coals and Culm		4,034,	3,859,	3,306,	3,100,	2,768,
		27,237,	26,574,	24,419,	24,856,	23,354,
<i>Ceramic Manufcts.</i> Earthenware and Glass		1,838,	1,821,	1,612,	1,620,	1,537,
<i>Indigenous Mnfrs.</i> Beer and Ale.....		1,455,	1,153,	1,590,	1,283,	1,285,
	Butter	195,	265,	216,	234,	362,
	Cheese	88,	126,	74,	113,	106,
	Candles	150,	176,	77,	100,	156,
	Salt	358,	298,	194,	225,	235,
	Spirits	123,	117,	205,	447,	348,
	Soda	1,229,	1,163,	804,	686,	666,
		3,598,	3,698,	3,160,	3,088,	3,159,
<i>Various Manufcts.</i> Books, Printed		442,	439,	359,	327,	323,
	Furniture	146,	175,	220,	185,	216,
	Leather Manufactures	1,349,	1,423,	1,834,	1,756,	1,674,
	Soap	217,	170,	133,	178,	193,
	Plate and Watches ...	299,	308,	304,	302,	344,
	Stationery	283,	279,	291,	253,	246,
		2,736,	2,794,	3,141,	3,001,	2,996,
Remainder of Enumerated Articles		7,870,	7,789,	7,085,	7,238,	6,404,
Unenumerated Articles.....		6,263,	6,273,	5,490,	5,638,	6,403,
TOTAL EXPORTS.....		137,202,	141,937,	119,717,	123,404,	104,296,

SHIPPING. — FOREIGN TRADE. — (United Kingdom.) — First Nine Months
(January — September), 1867-66-65-64. — Vessels Entered and Cleared with
Cargoes, including repeated Voyages, but excluding Government Transports.

(First Nine Months.) ENTERED :—	1867.			1866.		1865.		1864.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Average Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)	Vessels.	Tonnage (000's omitted.)
<i>Vessels belonging to—</i>	No.	Tons.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Russia	382	132,	346	350	123,	579	124,	536	182,
Sweden	902	159,	176	858	158,	798	140,	1,008	156,
Norway	3,047	701,	230	2,984	696,	2,751	632,	3,017	631,
Denmark.....	1,753	200,	114	1,669	179,	1,652	169,	2,129	207,
Prussia and Ger. Sts....	2,822	723,	256	3,197	768,	2,817	645,	1,529	395,
Holland and Belgium....	1,391	187,	134	1,624	219,	1,550	211,	1,380	193,
France	1,852	165,	89	2,297	212,	2,027	193,	1,784	143,
Spain and Portugal	369	123,	333	291	90,	325	102,	344	103,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	698	223,	318	915	267,	815	233,	608	171,
United States	319	328,	1,000	342	357,	229	248,	349	383,
All other States	7	3,	428	12	4,	21	6,	13	5,
United Kingdm. & } Depds.....	13,542	2,944,	217	14,539	3,073,	13,544	2,703,	12,697	2,569,
	19,819	6,891,	347	20,275	6,837,	18,474	5,889,	18,407	5,679,
<i>Totals Entered....</i>	33,361	9,835,	297	34,814	9,910,	32,018	8,592,	31,104	8,248,
CLEARED :—									
Russia	321	115,	358	315	115,	323	112,	425	162,
Sweden	840	137,	162	788	142,	681	111,	885	134,
Norway	1,695	335,	190	1,654	323,	1,444	274,	1,818	318,
Denmark.....	1,994	219,	109	2,689	179,	1,807	185,	2,166	209,
Prussia and Ger. Sts....	4,152	906,	218	4,109	847,	3,932	786,	2,298	490,
Holland and Belgium....	1,552	246,	158	1,565	255,	1,765	270,	1,385	214,
France.....	3,357	367,	109	3,123	329,	3,069	311,	3,333	330,
Spain and Portugal	368	122,	331	294	92,	329	100,	330	99,
Italy & other Eupn. Sts.	745	257,	345	991	318,	968	307,	854	256,
United States	424	418,	985	413	411,	258	261,	326	353,
All other States	10	3,	300	21	8,	31	7,	23	8,
United Kingdm. & } Depds.....	15,458	3,125,	202	14,962	30,19,	14,607	2,724,	13,843	2,573,
	23,824	7,991,	335	23,054	7,628,	22,198	6,861,	22,250	6,657,
<i>Totals Cleared....</i>	39,282	11,116,	282	38,016	10,647,	36,805	9,585,	36,093	9,230,

GOLD AND SILVER BULLION AND SPECIE. — IMPORTED AND EXPORTED. — (United Kingdom.) — *Computed Real Value for the First Nine Months (January—September), 1867-66-65.*

[000's omitted.]

(First Nine Months.)	1867.		1866.		1865.	
	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.
Imported from:—	£	£	£	£	£	£
Australia	3,864,	—	4,639,	1,	2,155,	—
So. Amca. and W. } Indies	2,134,	3,804,	1,694,	3,231,	2,041,	3,711,
United States and } Cal.	4,520,	1,232,	7,847,	1,452,	3,258,	119,
	10,518,	5,036,	14,180,	4,684,	7,454,	3,830,
France	380,	682,	2,637,	2,073,	290,	658,
Hanse Towns, Holl. } & Belg.	80,	193,	759,	865,	122,	83,
Prtgl., Spain, and } Gbrltr.	75,	88,	477,	115,	668,	80,
Mlta., Trky., and } Egypt	120,	60,	247,	9,	281,	—
China	—	—	—	—	—	—
West Coast of Africa	110,	2,	86,	16,	79,	18,
All other Countries....	420,	61,	1,417,	561,	749,	109,
<i>Totals Imported ..</i>	11,703,	6,122,	19,803,	8,323,	9,643,	4,778,
Exported to:—						
France	3,515,	1,301,	7,929,	1,504,	2,503,	586,
Hanse Towns, Holl. } & Belg.	261,	2,582,	1,022,	1,809,	269,	1,956,
Prtgl., Spain, and } Gbrltr.	353,	1,	158,	107,	1,485,	—
	4,129,	3,884,	9,109,	3,420,	4,257,	2,542,
Ind. and China (via } Egypt)	75,	540,	345,	2,443,	275,	1,724,
Danish West Indies	—	—	—	—	—	—
United States	49,	—	1,005,	—	20,	—
South Africa	22,	—	5,	—	19,	—
Mauritius	—	—	—	—	—	—
Brazil	31,	71,	816,	64,	465,	80,
All other Countries....	379,	89,	456,	850,	446,	78,
<i>Totals Exported....</i>	4,685,	4,584,	11,736,	6,777,	5,482,	4,424,
Excess of Imports	7,018,	1,538,	8,067,	1,546,	4,161,	354,
„ Exports	—	—	—	—	—	—

REVENUE.—(UNITED KINGDOM.)—30TH SEPTEMBER, 1867-66-65-64.

Net Produce in YEARS and QUARTERS ended 30th SEPT., 1867-66-65-64.

[000's omitted.]

QUARTERS, ended 30th Sept.	1867.	1866.	1867.		Corresponding Quarters.	
			Less.	More.	1865.	1864.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Customs	5,502,	5,541,	39,	—	5,289,	5,624,
Excise	4,300,	4,520,	220,	—	4,332,	4,352,
Stamps	2,200,	2,075,	—	125,	2,272,	2,267,
Taxes	272,	243,	—	29,	242,	168,
Post Office	1,200,	1,160,	—	40,	1,145,	1,045,
Property Tax	13,474,	13,539,	259,	194,	13,280,	13,456,
	648,	633,	—	15,	815,	782,
Crown Lands	14,122,	14,172,	259,	209,	14,095,	14,238,
	72,	71,	—	1,	70,	69,
Miscellaneous	720,	953,	233,	—	297,	485,
Totals	14,914,	15,196,	492,	210,	14,462,	14,792,
			NET DECR. £282,358			

YEARS, ended 30th Sept.	1867.	1866.	1867.		Corresponding Years.	
			Less.	More.	1865.	1864.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Customs	22,492,	21,621,	—	871,	21,969,	22,573,
Excise	20,334,	20,255,	—	79,	19,539,	19,096,
Stamps	9,609,	9,356,	—	253,	9,486,	9,538,
Taxes	3,525,	3,422,	—	103,	3,341,	3,252,
Post Office	4,590,	4,365,	—	225,	4,210,	3,960,
Property Tax	60,550,	59,019,	—	1,531,	58,545,	58,419,
	5,695,	5,595,	—	100,	7,732,	8,551,
Crown Lands	66,245,	64,614,	—	1,631,	66,277,	66,970,
	332,	322,	—	10,	312,	307,
Miscellaneous	2,893,	3,524,	630,	—	2,670,	3,097,
Totals	69,470,	68,460,	630,	1,641,	69,259,	70,374,
			NET INCR. £1,010,329			

REVENUE.—UNITED KINGDOM.—QUARTER ENDED 30TH SEPT., 1867:—

An Account showing the REVENUE and other RECEIPTS of the QUARTER ended 30th September, 1867; the APPLICATION of the same, and the Charge of the Consolidated Fund for the said Quarter, together with the Surplus or Deficiency upon such Charge.

Received:—

Surplus Balance beyond the Charge of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> for the Quarter ended 30th June, 1867, viz.:—	£
Great Britain	—
Ireland	£911,284
	911,284
Income received, as shown in Account I	14,913,740
Amount raised on Account of Fortifications, &c., per Act 28th and 29th Victoria, cap. 61.....	230,000
Amount received in repayment of Advances for Public Works, &c.	307,960
Ditto, for New Courts of Justice.....	70,000
	£16,432 984
Balance, being the Deficiency on 30th September, 1867, upon the charge of the Consolidated Fund in Great Britain, to meet the Dividends and other charges payable in the Quarter to 31st December, 1867 ...	3,010,279
	£19,443,263

Paid:—

Deficiency of the Income of the Consolidated Fund in Great Britain in the Quarter to 30th June, 1867, for the Charge of the Consolidated Fund in Great Britain for that Quarter (as shown in preceding account)	£
	1,192,916
Amount applied out of the Income to <i>Supply Services</i>	10,237,370
„ advanced for New Courts of Justice	160,000
„ „ for Greenwich Hospital	100,000
Charge of the <i>Consolidated Fund</i> for the Quarter ended 30th September, 1867, viz.:—	
Interest of the Permanent Debt	£5,045,890
Terminable Debt	956,633
Principal of Exchequer Bills	1,100
Interest of „	32,345
„ Advances on Account of Deficiency ...	—
The Civil List	101,294
Other Charges on Consolidated Fund	363,846
Advances for Public Works, &c.	355,917
Sinking Fund	672,682
	75,29,707
<i>Surplus Balance</i> in Ireland beyond the Charge of the Consolidated Fund in Ireland for the Quarter ended 30th September, 1867	223,270
	£19,443,253

**BRITISH CORN.—*Gazette Average Prices (ENGLAND AND WALES),
Third Quarter of 1867.***

[This Table is communicated by the Statistical and Corn Department, Board of Trade.]

Weeks ended on a Saturday, 1867.		Weekly Average. (Per Impl. Quarter.)					
		Wheat.		Barley.		Oats.	
		s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
July	6	64	11	35	3	27	1
"	13	64	7	34	9	28	5
"	20	65	1	35	1	28	4
"	27	65	8	35	8	28	3
Average for July		65	—	35	2	28	—
Aug.	3	67	5	35	3	27	6
"	10	68	2	35	11	28	9
"	17	68	4	36	7	29	7
"	24	68	2	39	4	28	11
"	31	66	7	39	6	28	11
Average for August		67	8	37	3	28	8
Sept.	7	62	5	38	10	27	6
"	14	61	3	39	9	27	3
"	21	62	11	40	7	27	—
"	28	64	1	40	6	26	1
Average for September		62	8	39	11	26	11
Average for the quarter		65	4	37	5	27	11

RAILWAYS.—PRICES, July—September;—and TRAFFIC, January—September, 1867

[Abstract from "Herepath's Journal" and the "Times."]

Total Capital Ex- pended Mlns.	Railway.	For the (£100). Price on			Miles Open.		Total Traffic. First 39 Weeks. (000's omitted.)		Traffic pr. Mile pr. Wk. 39 Weeks.		Dividends per Cent. for Half Years.		
		2nd Sept.	1st Aug.	1st July.	'67.	'66.	'67.	'66.	'67.	'66.	30 June, '67.	31 Dec., '66.	30 Ju '66.
£					No.	No.	£	£	£	£	s. d.	s. d.	s.
56,2	Lond. & N. Westn.	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	114	1,328	1,307	4,745,	4,697,	100	101	52 6	67 6	60
49,2	Great Western ...	46 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{4}$	44 $\frac{1}{4}$	1,344	1,311	2,998,	2,983,	61	63	12 6	10 —	20
20,5	" Northern...	114	112	115	487	422	1,497,	1,461,	91	93	45 —	80 —	50
28,1	" Eastern ...	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	26 $\frac{1}{4}$	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	709	709	1,377,	1,366,	54	52	Nil	Nil	Nil
16,8	Brighton	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	49 $\frac{1}{2}$	55	335	295	927,	874,	83	81	"	40 —	40
19,9	South-Eastern ...	68	63	65 $\frac{1}{2}$	330	330	1,079,	999,	97	88	20 —	30 —	28
16,5	" Western ...	83	76	78	503	500	—	—	59	59	37 6	45 —	40
207,2		72 $\frac{1}{2}$	68	71 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,036	4,874	12,623,	12,380,	78	77	23 11	38 11	34
30,7	Midland	118 $\frac{3}{4}$	114	113	753	688	2,094,	1,985,	83	82	55 —	62 6	60
22,5	Lanesh. and York.	127 $\frac{1}{2}$	125 $\frac{1}{2}$	129	403	403	1,857,	1,785,	123	120	65 —	67 6	67
15,3	Sheffield and Man.	47 $\frac{1}{2}$	43 $\frac{1}{2}$	47	246	246	815,	800,	93	94	10 —	30 —	20
39,0	North-Eastern ...	107	100 $\frac{1}{2}$	102	1,229	1,220	2,804,	2,736,	65	64	50 —	30 —	55
107,5		100	95 $\frac{3}{4}$	97 $\frac{3}{4}$	2,631	2,557	7,570,	7,306,	91	90	45 —	47 6	50
21,2	Caledonian	110	109	111	573	573	1,308,	1,294,	29	25	52 6	65 —	72
6,1	Gt. S. & Wn. Irlnd.	96	96	93	419	419	—	—	34	31	50 —	45 —	50
342,0	Gen. aver.	86	82	84	8,659	8,423	21,501,	20,980,	75	73	34 7	44 —	43

Consols.—Money Prices, 2nd Sep., 94 $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ del.—1st Aug., 94 $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ del.—1st July, 94 $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{3}{8}$ del.

Exchequer Bills.—2nd Sept., 25s. to 30s. pm.—1st Aug. (March), 24s. to 28s. pm.—1st July (March), 22s. to 26s. pm.

BANK OF ENGLAND.—WEEKLY RETURN.

Pursuant to the Act 7th and 8th Victoria, c. 32 (1844), for Wednesday in each Week, during the THIRD QUARTER (July—Sept.) of 1867.

[0,000's omitted.]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ISSUE DEPARTMENT.					COLLATERAL COLUMNS.	
Liabilities.	DATES.	Assets.			Notes in Hands of Public. (Col. 1 minus col. 16.)	Minimum Rates of Discount at Bank of England.
Notes Issued.	(Wednesdays.)	Government Debt.	Other Securities.	Gold Coin and Bullion.		
£	1867.	£	£	£	£	1867. Per ann.
Mlms.	July 3	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	30 May 2½ p. ct.
36,44	„ 10	11,01	3,98	21,44	24,35	
36,39	„ 17	11,01	3,98	21,39	24,05	
36,56	„ 24	11,01	3,98	21,56	23,20	
36,56	„ 31	11,01	3,98	21,56	24,01	
36,72		11,01	3,98	21,72	24,18	25 July 2 „
37,04	Aug. 7	11,01	3,98	22,04	24,34	
37,29	„ 14	11,01	3,98	22,29	24,12	
37,36	„ 21	11,01	3,98	22,36	23,93	
37,32	„ 28	11,01	3,98	22,32	23,69	
37,86	Sept. 4	11,01	3,98	22,86	24,07	
38,13	„ 11 ...	11,01	3,98	23,13	23,72	
38,33	„ 18	11,01	3,98	23,33	23,71	
38,24	„ 25	11,01	3,98	23,24	23,91	

BANKING DEPARTMENT.

8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Liabilities.					DATES. (Wdnsdys.)	Assets.				Totals of Liabili- ties and Assets.
Capital and Rest.		Deposits.		Seven Day and other Bills.		Securities.		Reserve.		
Capital.	Rest.	Public.	Private.			Government.	Other.	Notes.	Gold and Silver Coin.	
£	£	£	£	£	1867.	£	£	£	£	£
Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	July 3	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.	Mlms.
14,55	3,18	9,36	18,87	,47	„ 10	12,83	20,46	12,09	1,05	46,43
14,55	3,12	5,12	21,23	,45	„ 17	12,83	18,36	12,34	1,15	44,68
14,55	3,35	4,62	20,89	,47	„ 24	12,83	17,58	13,36	1,13	43,89
14,55	3,36	4,69	20,77	,46	„ 31	12,83	17,25	12,55	1,21	43,85
14,55	3,36	4,90	20,59	,49		12,83	17,32	12,54	1,20	43,89
14,55	3,40	5,19	19,85	,48	Aug. 7	12,81	16,76	12,70	1,21	43,48
14,55	3,40	5,51	19,94	,50	„ 14	12,81	16,72	13,17	1,20	43,91
14,55	3,40	6,52	19,47	,52	„ 21	12,81	17,05	13,43	1,17	44,46
14,55	3,37	7,35	18,87	,52	„ 28	12,81	16,97	13,63	1,25	44,67
14,55	3,66	7,67	18,87	,56	Sept. 4	12,84	17,46	13,79	1,21	45,31
14,55	3,66	7,94	19,15	,52	„ 11	12,84	17,36	14,41	1,22	45,83
14,55	3,68	7,97	19,16	,53	„ 18	12,89	17,22	14,62	1,17	45,90
14,55	3,68	8,36	18,92	,54	„ 25	12,89	17,12	14,33	1,21	46,05

CIRCULATION.—COUNTRY BANKS.

Average Amount of Promissory Notes in Circulation in ENGLAND and WALES on Saturday, in each Week during the THIRD QUARTER (July—Sept.) of 1867; and in SCOTLAND and IRELAND, at the Three Dates, as under.

ENGLAND AND WALES.				SCOTLAND.				IRELAND.		
DATES.	Private Banks. (Fixed Issues, 4,03).	Joint Stock Banks. (Fixed Issues, 2,74).	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 6,77).	Weeks ended	£5 and upwards.	Under £5.	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 2,75).	£5 and upwards.	Under £5.	TOTAL. (Fixed Issues, 6,35).
1867.	£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.	1867.	£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.	£ Mlms.
July 6	2,67	2,66	4,93	July 20	1,67	2,86	4,53	2,74	2,42	5,16
„ 13	2,69	2,27	4,96							
„ 20	2,63	2,25	4,88							
„ 27	2,59	2,22	4,81							
Aug. 3	2,58	2,14	4,72	Aug. 17	1,64	2,81	4,45	2,79	2,32	5,11
„ 10	2,58	2,18	4,76							
„ 17	2,55	2,19	4,74							
„ 24	2,58	2,19	4,77							
„ 31	2,52	2,19	4,71							
Sept. 7	2,54	2,21	4,75	Sept. 14	1,57	2,83	4,40	2,75	2,39	5,14
„ 14	2,59	2,23	4,82							
„ 21	2,64	2,26	4,90							
„ 28	2,73	2,31	5,04							

FOREIGN EXCHANGES.—*Quotations as under, LONDON on Paris, Hamburg and Calcutta;—and New York, Calcutta, Hong Kong and Sydney, on LONDON—with collateral cols.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
DATES.	Paris.				Hamburg.			New York.	Calcutta.		Hong Kong.	Sydney.	Standard Silver in bars in London.
	London on Paris	Bullion as arbitrated.		Prem. or Dis. on Gold per mille.	London on Hambg.	Bullion as arbitrated.			India Council	At Calcutta on London.			
		Agnst. Engd.	For Engd.			Agnst. Engd.	For Engd.						
3 m. d.				3 m. d.			60 d. s.	60 d. s.	6 m. d.	6 m. s.	30 d. s.	pr. oz.	
1867.		pr. ct.	pr. ct.			pr. ct.	pr. ct.	pr. ct.	d.	d.	d.	pr. ct.	d.
July 6 ..	25·42½	—	—	par.	13·10	—	—	110	23	23½	54	1½	60½
„ 20 ..	37½	—	—	„	„	—	—	„ ½	„	„	52½	„	„
Aug. 3 ..	„	—	—	„	9¾	—	—	110	„	¾	53¼	„	„
„ 17 ..	„	—	—	„	10¼	—	—	109¾	¼	½	„	„	¾
Sept. 7 ..	40	—	1	„	½	—	—	„	½	5/16	52¾	„	½
„ 21 ..	„	—	2	„	¾	—	—	„ ¼	„	½	¼	„	5/16

INDEX TO VOL. XXX, YEAR 1867.

	PAGE
ADMIRALTY COURT. Proceedings in suits, &c.	446
AGRICULTURAL LABOURERS, error of Professor Fawcett as to their ignorance	89
AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS of Great Britain in 1866	196-9
AGRICULTURE of Ireland, increased cultivation contemporaneous with increased emigration, &c.	571
AGRICULTURE. <i>Prussian Agriculture</i> [from the "Pall Mall Gazette"]	575
Great improvement since 1833, from the abolition of the triennial fallow and the "corvée," and by the introduction of very extensive technical agricultural education	575-7
AMERICA. <i>The Actual State of American Finance</i> [from the "Economist"]	173
The American finance statement a report of the past year, and not like the English budget prospective	173-4
Large excess of revenue over expenditure, and reduction of debt by twenty-three millions sterling	174-5
Unexampled fact of such enormous taxation being borne patiently by a nation hitherto almost untaxed	174
Want of responsibility of the finance minister in America	175-6
Facilities in obtaining money and in getting rid of their army, unknown to European States	17
ARBITRATION, establishment of a board of, in 1860 in the Midland hosiery trade to avoid strikes, its valuable action, &c. (see <i>Renals</i>)	550-54
ARMY, comparative military strength and recruiting resources for the, in various countries	225-33
(AUSTRIAN) statistics of its losses in the campaign against Prussia in 1866	329-31
(FRENCH) composition of its forces and reserve	235-8
— see <i>Conscription</i> .	
AUSTRIA, central statistical commission of, analysis of its report for 1866 (see <i>Newmarch</i>)	323
great progress in statistical organisation in	331
BALFOUR (Major-General). <i>On the Military Conscription of France</i>	216
Introduction: difficulties in avoiding errors, and in arriving at a knowledge of the practical effects of the conscription	216-17
— the best authorities, M. Maurice Block and the French War Minister's annual reports	216
Origin of the conscription: introduced in 1796 in place of the National Guard system of 1791, 1793, its abandonment attempted at the Restoration but in vain, modified by the laws of 1818, 1825, 1832, 1855, and 1858	217-18
Recruiting Resources of France: obligation of military service fixed at twenty years of age.	219
— table of number of males born 1800-44, number surviving at 20 years of age, &c.	220-21

BALFOUR (Major-General). *Military Conscription of France—contd.*

Exemptions claimed by foreigners residing in France: their increase from 1851 to 1861, from 378 $\frac{1}{4}$ thousands to 521 $\frac{1}{2}$ thousands, number of each sex, &c.	222
— number of sons of foreigners naturalised and number struck off lists on application, as aliens, and great excess of the latter	223
— strict scrutiny made of those repudiating French citizenship, and reports to their respective Governments	224
Comparative population and recruiting resources of various countries: total population and superficial area, 1821-66	225
— numbers of males under 15 and above 60, and numbers at various ages between 15 and 60, showing the relative military strength of the European Powers and the United States	226
— the future resources of England greater than those of France, but for emigration	227
Comparative table of male survivors at 20 years of age, in England and France	228
— calculation showing the births in the United Kingdom in 1866 to be 62,000 above those of France	229-30
— no material difference in the death-rate of the two countries	231
— ratios of deaths to births and emigration and immigration, as effecting the population of the two countries.	231-2
— proportion per cent. of marriages, and of births to marriages, illustrating the same inferiority in future resources as regards France	232-3
Civil or territorial divisions: departments, arrondissements, cantons, and communes, variations in their numbers	233-4
— number of communes according to population, there being 28,000 out of 37,000 under 1,000, and use of this minute division for conscription purposes	234-5
Territorial and military divisions: the same as the civil divisions, thus placing each general officer on a level with the <i>prefet</i> of each department	235
Composition of the French army: effective force and reserve, changes of classes in it during the last twenty-five years, and increase of its voluntary character	235-8
Exclusion from military service of all condemned to punishment or imprisonment	238
Length of service reduced from twelve years in 1818 to seven years in 1832	238
Height of French soldiers 1 metre 55 centimetres	238
Instruction and professions	239
Communal census-taking; its minute strictness, and provisions for defective registration	239
Inclusion of youths omitted in former years: table showing how few escape detection	240
Drawing by lot in cantons	242
Proceedings of councils of revision, with return of their operations, 1841-64	242-7
— number of officers employed, 801 for six weeks in the year	244
Exemptions: aggregate numbers, 1841-64, numbers examined double that of those required	247-9
— causes of exemption, and tables of numbers under each cause	249-54
Dispensations: enumeration of special grounds for, and returns of deductions, 1836-63	255-7
Exoneration: the principle of payments for, first established in 1855, extent to which adopted, amounts paid, &c.	258-60
Substitution and remplacement, changes made by the laws of 1818, 1832 and 1858, returns of numbers admitted, 1845-65, &c.	260-65
Army dotation fund, rates for exoneration and of bounties paid to remplaçants by the State at various dates.	265-7
Formation, apportionment, and division of the annual contingent, and table of numbers who joined the land and marine forces annually, 1837-64	268-70
Calling out the second portion of the contingents incorporated with the reserve	270
Putting in motion of the contingent, and its varying strength	271-2
Proportion of military strength and contingent to population	272
Composition and training of the reserve and table of its strength, 1843-65	274-6
Voluntary enlistments, numbers in each year, 1837-64	276-9
Re-engagement before and after liberation from service, and numbers re-engaged in the years 1841-64	279-80
Invaliding and liberation, with return of soldiers discharged in each year, 1842-64	281-3
Misdemeanours: fraudulent omissions from census lists, insubordinates, youths disabling themselves for service, &c.	283-5
— table of prolongations of service from judicial condemnations	286-7
— fraud in obtaining substitutes, abuse of authority by public functionaries, bribery of medical officers, &c.	288
Conclusion: tables of the contingents, and of the numbers struck off from various grounds	289-92

BANK OF ENGLAND,

weekly account of the issue and banking departments :

Fourth quarter, 1866	209	Second quarter, 1867	492
First ,, 1867	372	Third ,, 	603

BANKS (COUNTRY), amounts of promissory notes in circulation (in Great Britain and Ireland) :

Fourth quarter, 1866	210	Second quarter, 1867	493
First ,, 1867	373	Third ,, 	604

BANKS, enumeration and details of the "financing" of 148-9
 (Joint Stock) growth of deposits in 1834-66, from 1½ million to 80¾ millions 150

BANKING, free trade in (see *Sykes*) 58
 system of note issuing by commercial establishments, in Tartary 60-61
 system in China, account of 61-7
 in America—attempts at founding a bank and issue of shinplasters in Monroe, Michigan 58-9

BANKRUPTCY, proceedings in court of, 1863-65 440-42

BENGAL, (LOWER). On prison discipline and statistics in (see *Mouat*) 21

BIRTHS in France, large excess of males in 1864 457

ditto, stationary, and the increase of population accounted for by longevity of inhabitants 457

comparative numbers of legitimate and illegitimate, in Austria 329

ILLEGITIMATE, rate per cent. in Scotland :

Quarter Dec., 1866	190	Quarter June, 1867	474
,, March, 1867	358	,, Sept., ,, 	589

see *Illegitimacy*.

BOVILL (William John). *On the Statistics of Civil Procedure in English Courts of Law* 427

General interest felt in civil lawsuits and its probable causes 427-8

The collection of facts as to subjects and numbers of suits, results and costs, the object of the paper 428

Civil tribunals of England, enumeration of, and their ordinary business 428-30

Proceedings in the superior courts of common law, number of cases, subjects of the suits, verdicts, judgments, and executions, 1859-65 431-35

— ditto appeals granted, writs of error, &c.. . . . 435-6

— in county courts, plaints, judgments, executions, their proportions, &c. 437-39

— of local courts of ancient jurisdiction, their number (33), the business in many extinct, names of those which retain important business, &c. 439-40

Court of bankruptcy, number of adjudications 1865 compared with 1863-64, produce of the estates of bankrupts, 72 per cent. without dividend, and numbers at each rate of dividend 440-42

— facilities for escape from liability in bankruptcy, and resort to trust deeds of assignment, composition, &c., in consequence 442

Court of chancery, number of suits and petitions, 1864-65, and proceedings arising out of them 443-4

— ditto, in matters of lunacy and under commissions, amounts paid into court, and balances of stock and securities 445-6

County palatine of Lancaster and the court of admiralty, number of suits, &c. 446

Divorce court, court of probate, and ecclesiastical courts, petitions filed, probates granted, and suits, 1864-65 447-49

Judicial Committee of Privy Council and House of Lords Appeals, 1864-65 449-50

Expense of the civil tribunals 450-51

Concluding observations, large number of actions compared with population, greater proportion of causes in chancery than in common law, excessive fees of county courts, small number of admiralty causes, &c. 451-3

BRITISH ASSOCIATION for the Advancement of Science. (Thirty-Seventh Meeting, at Dundee.) Section F, Economic Science and Statistics. List of papers read, August, 1867 562

Section F. Opening address of the president (see *Grant-Duff*) 495

BUDGETS. *The French and English Budgets* [from the "Economist"] 170

Explanation of the excessive exactness of details, and system of credits and supplemental rectification of budgets in France 170-71

Impossibility of the general public being able to understand or criticise these minute reasonings and details 171

BULLION AND SPECIE, gold and silver, imported and exported :

Jan.-Dec., 1864-66	205	Jan.-June, 1865-67	488
Jan.-March, 1865-67	368	Jan.-Sept., „	599

CHANCERY, proceedings in court of, 1864-65, &c. 443-6

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS, &c. Statistics of sums given by the native gentry in India for (see *Sykes*) 535

— of the Roman States, large number 570

CLARKE (Hyde). *On Public Instruction in Turkey*. 502

Particular differences of language used by Turks, Jews, and Armenians in their houses, literature, trade, religious services, &c. 502

Public instruction left to religious communities, the action of the State being subordinate 503

Mussulman education: superior, in colleges, similar to those of the middle ages, their gradual decline and fall into the hands of the Government 504

— usual progress in the law, payment of officers, cultivation of the ulema, &c. 505-6

— village schools and schoolmasters, the hojah, subjects taught 507-

— literatures and languages of the various nationalities of the Turkish Empire 509-10

— proportions of children at schools, public letter writers, the hojah, &c. 511

The Government: the Sultans always patrons of learning 512

— ministers of public instruction, their usual ability, names of good scholars among them, and of others taking interest in education 513-14

— Mr. C. Wells' work in Turkish on State management 514

— council of public instruction, staff, meetings, and labours 514-21

— establishment of the rushdiyeh mektebi or grammar schools, their increase since 1849, &c. 515-16

— special schools of medicine, and for army and navy 517-18

— universities and literary societies 519-20

— public libraries, examinations 520-21

Orthodox, or Greek Church schools 521-3

Armenian schools, Catholic or Latin schools 523-4

Jewish, Protestant, and foreign schools 525-6

Advance of schooling in Turkey, the populations all religious, even to superstition, superior morality of the Turk and Jew to the Christian in Turkey 527-8

Tables of numbers of schools and scholars 529-31

— of public Mussulman libraries 532

Orthodox instruction in the Turkish provinces: report of Vice-Consul Blunt, for Adrianople 533

CLEARING HOUSE. *Statistics of the Clearing House* [communicated by Sir John Lubbock] 332

Comparison of daily amounts in 1839 and in 1867 (five weeks ending 5th June) 332-3

The New York Clearing House [from the "Manchester Guardian"] 577

COMBINATION LAWS, repeal of, in 1824 1

Ditto, in France, repealed in 1864 2

COMMERCE. *Commercial and Financial History of 1866*, general results of [from the "Economist"] 138

Enumeration of cholera, cattle plague, war, scarcity, Irish discontent, and financial crisis, rendering 1866 a year of almost uniform disaster 138-9

Fall in prices in wholesale commodities 20 per cent. from the collapse of 1866 139

Table showing relation of prices in January, 1867, to those of 1857-61-64-66 140

— showing increased production of pig-iron in 1865 over 1862 141

The year 1866 probably the turning period from a rise to a fall in wages 141

Years of poverty and exhaustion yet to come in the United States, from the destruction of capital in the civil war 142

Enumeration of financial and political difficulties of the States yet to be surmounted 142

Values of raw cotton in United Kingdom, 1856-66, over-production of 1866, and glut in the home and foreign markets 143-4

Large increase in home use and exports of woollen and linen goods 144-5

Drain of gold and silver, 1862-65, to Egypt and the east, greatly reduced in 1866 145

Description of the extravagant railway "financing" which culminated in the collapse of 1866 146

Details of the reckless conduct of Overend and Co. for the last ten years with the enormous amounts entrusted to them 147

	PAGE
COMMERCE. <i>Commercial and Financial History of 1866—contd.</i>	
Enumeration and details of the other "financing" companies and railways .	148-9
Growth of joint stock deposits, 1834-66, from 1½ million to 80½ millions (less 20 millions acceptances)	150
Limited liability not chargeable with the mischiefs of the panic . . .	151
CONSCRIPTION (MILITARY) of France (see <i>Balfour</i>)	216
its origin, modification, &c., 1796-1858	217-18
exemptions from, claimed by foreigners in France	222-4
exemption, dispensation, exoneration and substitutions	247-65
CONVICTS see <i>Criminals</i> .	
CORN. <i>Tables showing Estimated Corn-Yield of the English Counties for 1866, with explanation of the modes of taking the averages [from "Mark Lane Express"]</i>	151-7
average weekly prices (with monthly and quarterly averages):	
Fourth quarter, 1866 208 Second quarter, 1867 491	
First " 1867 371 Third " 602	
CORONERS' INQUESTS, returns of, their increase 1858-65, verdicts, costs of inquests, their value to society, &c.	397-403
COTTON (RAW), values of in United Kingdom 1856-66, and overproduction of 1866	143-4
COTTON TRADE. <i>The Cotton Trade with France, 1859-66</i> [statistics by Mr. H. R. Lack, from the proceedings of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce]	574
COUNTY COURTS, proceedings in	437-39
CRIMINAL CLASSES. Police returns of probable number at large, comparison of towns, &c.	388-92
CRIMINAL STATISTICS, offences reported to police dealt with summarily, nature of punishments, &c.	392-97
CRIMINALS, adoption of tickets of leave for	418
tables of, and classes of offences, 1857-66	425-6
DACOITS or gang robbers, their deceptions and modes of travelling as pretended merchants, &c.	35
DEATH-RATE, see <i>Mortality</i> .	
DIVORCE COURT, petitions filed, 1864-65, &c.	447
ECCLESIASTICAL COURTS, suits, &c., 1865	448-9
ECONOMY (POLITICAL), necessity of its inclusion as a part of popular education—exertions of Mr. W. Ellis and Mr. Shields	454
EDUCATION, notice of the numerous reports and papers on, in the Society's <i>Journal</i> up to 1850	82-3
80 per cent. among men, and 70 among women, in 1864, who could write	89
90 per cent. men, and 80 women, who could write in Scotland in 1855	89
on the progress of elementary (see <i>Sargant</i>)	80
on the funds available for developing the machinery of education in England (see <i>Rogers</i>)	557
half-time system of, details of, its efficiency, &c.	117-19
PRIVY COUNCIL COMMITTEE OF, expenditure, effects of revised code, &c.	113-15
in the NAVY, 1845	137
in PRUSSIA, untrustworthy character of the statements as to its high point, &c.	93-6
of the Roman States, public	569-70
(PUBLIC), in Turkey (see <i>Clarke</i>)	502
(MUSSULMAN), in colleges, village schools, &c.	504-11

EMIGRATION from Ireland :

Oct.-Dec., 1865-66 . . . —	April-June, 1866-67 . . . 478-9
Jan.-March, 1866-67 . . . —	July-Sept., „ . . . —

EXCHANGES (FOREIGN), quotations on London :

Oct.-Dec., 1866 . . . 210	April-June, 1867 . . . 493
Jan.-March, 1867 . . . 373	July-Sept., „ . . . 604

EXPORTS, United Kingdom :

Jan.-Dec., 1862-66 . . . 203	Jan.-June, 1863-67 . . . 486
Jan.-March, 1863-67 . . . 366	Jan.-Sept., „ . . . 597

see *Imports, Trade.*

FACTORY ACTS, extension of	498
FAWCETT (Professor), his error, as to the hopeless ignorance of agri- cultural labourers	89, 109-11
FINANCIAL HISTORY of 1866, see <i>Commerce.</i>	
FLOGGING—arguments in favour of flogging juvenile delinquents in prisons	25 (<i>and note</i>)
FRANCE. <i>Dangers and Decay of the French Race.</i> [Notice of Jules Simon's "l'Ouvrier de huit ans," from the "Pall Mall Gazette"] .	343
Slight increase of population during this century, with no emigration .	343
Deterioration in health and height, caused by the excessive conscription and manufactures draining the rural districts, employment of women and children in factories, mercenary nursing of infants, &c.	344-5

see *Budgets, Conscription, Cotton Trade, Population.*

FREE TRADE in Banking (see <i>Sykes</i>)	58
---	----

GAOL CODE of Bengal	46-7
-------------------------------	------

GRANT-DUFF (M. E.). <i>Opening Address as President of Section F (Economic Science and Statistics) of the British Association, September, 1867</i>	495
--	-----

Intermediate character of statistics between moral and physical science .	495
Necessity for popularising economic science in endeavours to better the con- dition of the people	496
State of the question of free trade, the coal supply, and money market .	497
Necessity for a good system of elementary and technical education . .	497
Extension of the factory acts	498
Definition of the field of statistics, and advantages derived from different sections of statistics proved against its detractors	498-9
Mischievous abuse of statistical methods by its friends	500
Necessity for statistical hand-books	500
International character of statistics	501

GUY (William A.). <i>On the Mortality of London Hospitals, and Inci- dentally on the Deaths in the Prisons and Public Institutions of the Metropolis</i>	293
--	-----

Results of the returns of hospitals for 1861-65, as to number of cases, and mean residence	293-4
Statements of death-rates of hospitals, confirming the opinion that the mor- tality of hospitals is mainly due to causes determining the nature and severity of the cases admitted	294-6
— the greater mortality shown to be contemporaneous with an excess of medical over surgical cases, as shown in the death-rates of King's College and the Royal Free, and St. George's and the London Hospitals . . .	296-7
— other causes affecting the comparative mortality: sex, and special wards .	297-300
— other modifying causes: age, free admission or admission by letter, and mean residence	300-302
Tables of the general mortality in London hospitals, 1861-65, and of that in medical and surgical cases, illustrating the error of comparing different years	302-3
Great fluctuations of rate in different years	304
Comparative tables of death-rates in other public institutions, in metropolitan districts, and by prevalent diseases	305
Death-rates chiefly highest in 1864 and lowest in 1862, in hospitals and in their corresponding districts	306-7

GUY (William A.). *On the Mortality of London Hospitals—contd.*

PAGE

Coincidences of death-rates in hospitals and other public institutions, and with classes of special diseases	308-9
Summary of causes affecting applicants for admission, the selection of cases, and the fate of patients admitted	310-12
— a low death-rate in a hospital, probably often caused by its greater admission of the less serious class of cases	311
Appendix: mortality in the London prisons	313-18
— remarkable increase of deaths in prisons in 1864	313
Excess of deaths shown to be chiefly due to excess of pulmonary consumption, especially among prisoners, and bronchitis among the aged, in years of unusual severity	316-18
Note by Dr. Peacock on the rate of mortality at St. Thomas's Hospital in the last nine years	319-22
— conclusion that the higher rate of mortality there of late years, is due to greater severity of cases admitted	321

HAMMICK (James T.). *On the Judicial Statistics of England and Wales, with Special Reference to the Recent Returns relating to Crime*

375

Introduction: reason why the paper is confined more especially to criminal statistics	375-6
Progress of judicial statistics in England: their first foundation in the "tables of criminal offenders" commenced in 1810	376-80
— their improved character under the care of Mr. S. Redgrave, from 1834	376
— discussion of the subject at the successive statistical congresses, from 1853. Labours of Leone Levi, &c.	377
— publication from 1857 of the Home Office "Judicial Statistics"	378
— discussions at the Statistical Congress in 1860	378
— character of the judicial statistics of Ireland and Scotland	379
— notice of M. Guerry's elaborate work on the moral statistics of England and France	380
Some deficiencies in the Home Office "Judicial Statistics"	380-86
— no information as to number of judges, salaries, arrangement of assize courts, county courts	380-81
— want of details relative to the 4,800,000 <i>l.</i> , the annual cost to the country for law and justice	381
— imperfect information as to the labours of magistrates and justices of petty sessions	382
— ditto as to courts martial and juries	383
— confusion from the double use of the word "commitments"	383
— discrepancies as to number of murders and summary convictions (with explanations by Mr. Leslie)	384
— civil statistics, returns of unintelligible details	385
Police establishments: the uniform system of police, established in 1858, its distribution, proportion to population, cost, &c., in England and Ireland	386-7
— returns of the criminal classes: exaggerated statement of Colquhoun in 1796, error of classing all persons of no stated occupations as of criminal occupation	388
— probable numbers of habitual criminals at large, 1858-65	389
— comparison of towns as to number of their criminal classes: smallest proportionate number in London	390-91
— houses of bad character	392
Offences reported to the police: comparison of crimes reported and persons apprehended	392-3
— crime at its maximum in the winter	394
— proportions per cent. discharged of persons apprehended	394
Offences dealt with summarily: summary convictions now so numerous, 1858-65, as to destroy comparisons with previous dates	395
— drunkenness and assaults on women and children, at the head of the list, and their great increase since 1861	396
— nature of the punishments for offences determined summarily	396 (note)
— totals for years 1858-65, showing great average increase in last four years	397
Returns of coroners' inquests: number of coroners, few heads of returns	397-8
— increase of inquests from increase of fatal accidents, and total number, 1858-65	398
— verdicts of wilful murder, 1858-65, and cases of infanticide	399
— open verdicts, manslaughter	400
— suicides, annual numbers, 1858-65, remarkable illustration of the regular laws that actions determined by the will of individuals are subject to	401
— analysis of modes of suicide	401-2
— total and average costs of inquests	402
— security to society and value of coroners' inquests as assisting towards the prevention of crime	403
Results of criminal proceedings: number committed, sentences, and ratio to committals	403-5

	PAGE
HAMMICK (James T.). <i>Judicial Statistics of England, &c.—contd.</i>	
Results of criminal proceedings: details of offences and sentences, petty character of a large proportion, cost of proceedings, &c.	405-9
Statistics of prisons: system now adopted, classes of prisons, &c.	409-10
— commitments to local prisons, 1856-65, ages of prisoners	411-12
— birthplace of prisoners, and their degree of instruction and occupations.	413-16
— government convict prisons, adoption of tickets of leave, daily average of convicts, 1858-66, and disposal of prisoners	416-21
— reformatory schools, number of commitments since their establishment in 1854, and question as to their beneficial effects	421-3
— criminal lunatics	423
Conclusions	424
Appendix. <i>Tables of state of crime 1857-66, and classes of offences</i>	425-6
HAMMICK (Mr. J. T.), Note on the non-parochial registers of marriages in the general register office	125-6
see <i>Rome</i> (Papal States).	
HEALTH, state of the public:	
Quarter Dec., 1866 . 182 Quarter June, 1867 . 466	
„ March, 1867 . 351 „ Sept., „ . 582	
ditto, Scotland:	
Quarter Dec., 1866 . 192 Quarter June, 1867 . 476	
„ March, 1867 . 360 „ Sept., „ . 592	
ditto, Ireland:	
Quarter Dec., 1866 . — Quarter June, 1867 . 481	
„ March, 1867 . — „ Sept., „ . —	
HOSIERY TRADES in the midland counties, on arbitration in (see <i>Renals</i>)	548
HOSPITALS (London), on the mortality of, (see <i>Guy</i>)	293
HOSPITAL, St. Thomas's, on the rate of mortality in, in last nine years	319-22
HOSPITAL STATISTICS, of prisoners in Bengal	54
ILLEGITIMACY, proportions of, in different towns	74-5
ditto, in Austria	329
see <i>Births</i> .	
IMPORTS, United Kingdom:	
Jan.-Dec., 1862-66 . 202 Jan.-May, 1863-67 . 485	
Jan.-Feb., 1863-67 . 365 Jan.-Aug., „ . 596	
see <i>Exports</i> .	
INDIA. Statistics of sums given by native gentry, for charitable and educational institutions, &c. (see <i>Sykes</i>)	535
general low tone of morality among the natives of	33
INQUESTS, see <i>Coroners'</i> inquests.	
INSANE POOR, see <i>Lunatics</i> .	
INSTRUCTION (Public), see <i>Education</i> .	
IRELAND. <i>Irish Emigration and Irish Agriculture</i> [from the "Manchester Guardian"]	571
Error of supposing from the less production of grain that the land is going out of cultivation in proportion to emigration and the decrease of population, and statement showing that it has increased in extent and value	571
IRON (pig), increased production in 1865 over 1862	141
ITALY; see <i>Roman States</i> .	
JUDICIAL STATISTICS, see <i>Law</i> .	
LABOUR, see <i>Wages of</i> .	
LAW. Judicial statistics of England and Wales, with special reference to the recent returns relating to crime (see <i>Hammick</i>)	375

	PAGE
LAW—<i>contd.</i>	
progress of judicial statistics in England from 1810 . . .	376-80
deficiencies in the Home Office "Judicial Statistics" . . .	380-86
on the statistics of civil procedure in English courts of law (see <i>Bovill</i>)	427
LAW COURTS , proceedings in superior courts	431-6
ditto, in county courts	437-9
ditto, in local courts of ancient jurisdiction	439-40
expenses of	450-51
LEATHER. <i>The British Leather Trade</i> [from the "Manchester Guardian"]	345
LETTERS , average number written, to each 1,000 persons in different countries	98
LIABILITY (LIMITED) , not chargeable with the mischiefs of the panic of 1866	151
LIBRARIES , public, in Turkey	520, 532
LOANS , money-lending clubs without interest in China	65-6
LUNATICS (CRIMINAL)	423
LUNATICS (PAUPER). <i>Statistics of Insane Poor of Great Britain and Ireland</i> [from the "Manchester Guardian"]	158-170 336-343
Insane poor of England and Wales: number chargeable to unions 1866, and to poor rates 1859-66	158-9
— ratio of lunatics and idiots to total insane paupers	160
— ratios of insane paupers to population and ditto in particular places	161-3
Insane poor of Scotland, proportion to population, &c.	164-7
— tables of recoveries in asylums 1858-65	168-9
Insane poor of Ireland, number at large and in asylums 1861-66	337-8
— lunatics and idiots in Irish workhouses 1866	338-9
— district asylums, details of patients, admitted and discharged, relapses, condition, education, &c.	339-342
MARRIAGE REGISTERS , their trustworthy character for statistics of numbers who can write	86-7
signatures to, less in France than in England	101
tables of marks used in signing	127-136
(non-parochial) in the general register office, note by Mr. Ham- mick	125-6
MARRIAGES , in France, 1864, tendency to diminish in number and fecundity, ages and instruction of the married, &c.	458
MEAT , see <i>Prices</i> .	
MEDICINE , schools of, in Turkey	517
METEOROLOGICAL TABLES:	
Dec. quarter, 1866 188-9 June quarter, 1867	471-2
March „ 1867 356-57 Sept. „	588
METEOROLOGY of England and Wales, remarks on the weather by James Glaisher:	
Dec. quarter, 1866 . . . 187 June quarter, 1867	470
March „ 1867 . . . 355 Sept. „	586
METEOROLOGY and weather, Scotland:	
Dec. quarter, 1866 . . . 193 June quarter, 1867	476
March „ 1867 . . . 361 Sept. „	592
METEOROLOGY and weather, Ireland:	
Dec. quarter, 1866 . . . — June quarter, 1867	479
March „ 1867 . . . — Sept. „	—
MORTALITY of England and Wales, annual rate per cent. in divisions and districts:	
All quarters, 1865-66 . . . 184 All quarters, 1866-67	467
„ 1865-67 . . . 352 „ „	584

MORTALITY—*contd.*

average annual rate, in eleven divisions of England	{ 183, 351 466, 583
of Scotland, see <i>Registration</i> .	
of Ireland, annual rate per cent.	—
of France, in 1864, 2·27 per cent.	458
of prisoners in Bengal, <i>tables</i> of	54-6

MORTALITY of women in child-bearing.

<i>Workhouse Death-rate in Child-birth</i> [from the "Pall Mall Gazette"]	171
---	-----

Comparative death-rates of London workhouses (6 per 1,000) with those of lying-in-hospitals and the out-door midwifery department of St. George's Hospital	172
Causes of the greater mortality among unmarried women shown in the excessive death-rate of Queen Charlotte's Hospital	173

MORTALITY of London hospitals, on the (see <i>Guy</i>)	293
in the prisons and public institutions of the metropolis (see <i>Guy</i>)	{ 308, 313-18

MOUAT (Frederic J.), M.D. <i>On Prison Discipline and Statistics in Lower Bengal</i> [continuation of a Paper on the same subject in vol. xxv, p. 175]	21
--	----

Statement of the changes in the prison districts under the Government of Bengal since 1859.	21-2
Present state of the question of prison discipline in Bengal	22
Material improvements due to the exhaustive Report of the Prison Discipline Committee of 1838	22
Little advance made in Bengal, Madras, and Bombay by 1864	23
Appointment of Indian Gaol Committee in 1864	24
— analysis of their report	24-32
— heavy mortality from want of sanitary arrangements	24
— juvenile delinquents: arguments in favour of flogging in prisons	{ 25 (and note)
— female prisoners, improved accommodation for; suggestions for gaol dietaries	27
— prison discipline, rewards and punishments	27-9
— education, recommendations of the committee, and objections to the education of prisoners	30-31
— habitual offenders, tickets-of-leave, and classification of convicts	31-2
General characteristics of Indian prisoners: general low tone of morality among the natives of India	33
— the thugs, murders, cattle-theft, burglaries (caused by insecurity of houses), &c.	34-5
— dacoits or gang robbers (who are always strangers from other provinces), their deceptions and mode of travelling as pretended merchants or escorts of a rajah on a pilgrimage, &c.	35
— river robbers, professional poisoners	36
— comparative numbers of the classes from which the criminal population is recruited	36-7
Comparison of committals, convictions, and acquittals, 1861-64	38-40
Sickness and mortality of prisoners in Bengal, 1861-64	41-3
Reconvictions; escape and reappréhensions; cost of prisoners	43-4
Education and reformation of prisoners (education without religious instruction useless), and efficiency of industrial training.	45-6
Bengal gaol code	46-7
General conclusions	48-50
<i>Tables.</i> Length of sentence, release, religious castes and sects	50-53
— hospital statistics, mortality, death-rates, cost of prisoners, and education	54-7

NAVY, see *Shipping*.

NEWMARCH (W. Thomas). <i>Central Statistical Commission of Austria, Analysis of Report for 1866</i>	323
---	-----

Composition of the commission, and subjects of the papers in its annual report for 1866	323
Consumption of food, &c., in Vienna, per head of population	324
Statistics of marriages, births, and deaths, 1851-64, with prices of wheat and rye	324-28
Comparative numbers of legitimate and illegitimate births	329
Statistics of the losses of the Austrian army in the campaign against Prussia in 1866	329-31
Great progress in statistical organisation in Austria	331

OFFENCES, see *Criminal Statistics*.

OVEREND AND CO. Details of the reckless conduct of, during the last ten years, and enormous amounts entrusted to them . . . 147

OXFORD UNIVERSITY, its enormous revenues compared with the number educated there 558

PAPAL STATES, see *Rome*.

PARTNERSHIPS (INDUSTRIAL), of capitalists and workmen, proposed establishment of 18

PEACOCK (Dr.), on the mortality in St. Thomas's Hospital in the last nine years 319-22

POLICE ESTABLISHMENTS, system, distribution, cost, &c. 386-7

POPULATION, increase of, 1866-67 { 181, 349
463, 581

ditto, in Scotland, 1866-67 { 191, 359
475, 591

decrease in Ireland 478

on the unequal proportion between male and female, of manufacturing and other towns (see *Worthington*) 68

in France, movement of, during 1864 [from "l'Opinion Nationale"] 457

— increase of, attributable not to increase of births, but of longevity of inhabitants 457

of Roman States, description of its nominal increase, character, &c. 567

PRICES of provisions, average of consols, wheat, meat, &c., with pauperism and temperature, 1866-67 { 181-2,
349-50,
465, 581

ditto, in Ireland, 1866-67 479

of wholesale commodities, fall in from collapse of 1866, 20 per cent. 139

relation of those of January, 1867, to those of 1857-61-64-66 . . . 140

PRISONERS, objections to the education of, in India 30-31

PRISONS, statistics of, systems now adopted, commitments, &c. . . . 409-16

(Government convict), daily average of convicts, disposal of prisoners, &c. 416-21

(London), mortality in 313-18

PRISON DISCIPLINE and statistics in Lower Bengal (see *Mouat*) . . . 21

PRIVY COUNCIL, Judicial Committee of Appeals, 1864-65 449

PROBATE, COURT OF, probates granted, 1844-45, &c. 447-8

PRUSSIA, see *Agriculture* (Prussian).

RAILWAYS, prices and traffic :

Jan.-Dec., 1866 208	Jan.-June, 1867 491
Jan.-March, 1867 371	Jan.-Sept., „ 602

description of the extravagant financing in, which culminated in the collapse of 1866 146-9

RECRUITING RESOURCES, comparative with population, in various countries 225-233

see *Conscription*.

REFORMATORIES, number of commitments since 1854, beneficial effects, &c. 421-3

REGISTRATION of marriages, births, and deaths :

Quar. Sept.-Dec., 1866 178, 186	Quar. March-June, 1867 462, 469
„ Dec.-Mar., 1866-67 346, 354	„ June-Sept., „ 578, 585

annual rate per cent. { 180, 348
464, 580

REGISTRATION—*contd.*

ditto, Scotland :

Quarter Dec., 1866 .	190	Quarter June, 1867 .	473
„ March, 1867 .	358	„ Sept., „ .	589

ditto, Ireland :

Quar. Sept.-Dec., 1866 .	—	Quar. March-June, 1867 .	477
„ Dec.-March, 1866-67 .	—	„ June-Sept., „ .	—
annual rates per cent.			482
summary of Great Britain and Ireland :			

Quar. Sept.-Dec., 1866 .	195	Quar. March-June, 1867 .	483
„ Dec.-March, 1866-67 .	363	„ June-Sept., „ .	594

REGISTRATION. *Defective Registration of Births and Deaths in England.* [Memorial from the Manchester Statistical Society] . . . 334

Defects in registration and fraudulent returns, and proposal for appointment of officers of health to assist the Registrar-General . . . 335-6

REGISTRATION STATISTICS, in Austria, 1851-64 . . . 324-8

RENALS (E.). *On Arbitration in the Hosiery Trades of the Midland Counties* . . . 548

Beneficial effects of the establishment of a board of arbitration and conciliation . . . 548

Constant strikes and disputes in the last half century . . . 548

The hand-loom framework knitters of Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, and Leicestershire, number of frames, and mode of employment of the "hands" the middleman, &c. . . 549

The board of arbitration first organised at the strike in 1860; its composition, meetings, rules, and means of checking disputes at their commencement . . . 550-51

Recent illustrations of the valuable action of the board in remedying grievances, and rare opposition to their decisions . . . 552-3

Results in growth of mutual feelings of confidence between employers and workmen; suppression of the truck system, &c. . . 554

Its essential use during fluctuations of prices, from its conciliatory action . . . 554-55

Summary of advantages to workmen and employers . . . 555

REVENUE, net produce of, applications, &c., in years and quarters ending :

Dec., 1863-66 .	206-7	June, 1864-67 .	489-90
March, 1864-67 .	369-70	Sept., „ .	600-601

ROGERS (J. E. Thorold). *On the Funds Available for Developing the Machinery of Education in England* . . . 557

Assumption that the State has power to divert charitable grants when their purposes are obsolete or abused . . . 557

Educational endowments to be open to the lowest condition of life . . . 557

Scanty character and short period of school education in agricultural districts . . . 558

Large amount of endowments exemplified in the supposed enormous revenues of Oxford University compared with the number educated there . . . 558

Endowed grammar schools, their large revenues but inferiority to proprietary schools . . . 558

Charities of corporations and companies, instances of their abuse for political and other purposes . . . 558-9

The expense of an English university education so great as to confine endowments and fellowships to the rich, though elections are made only by merit . . . 559

Original object of the founders of our ancient universities to select from all ranks of society . . . 560

Proposal for the placing of existing resources in a common fund for the United Kingdom, and making the endowments of the richest open to the graduates of the poorest (*i.e.* Scotch) universities . . . 560ROME. *Papal States, Statistics of.* [Abridged by Mr. J. T. Ham-mick from Signor D. Silvagni's Memoir on the Roman States, presented to the International Statistical Congress, at Florence] . . . 566

Territory : identical with the ancient Latium, its present desolate and ruinous condition and the causes, its being the property of religious corporations and of nobles, who let it to farmers who exhaust the soil, &c. . . 566

ROME. *Papal States, Statistics of—contd.*

PAGE

Population: its apparent increase not real, partly caused by French occupation and Neapolitan immigration; the ecclesiastical population doubled, the Jewish decreased by half, &c.	567
Trade and commerce: no progress of in the last half century, except in those connected with the fine arts; the great want, an improvement of its agriculture, &c.	568
Finances, taxes, and public debt: excess of the army to population, and large amount of taxation per head.	569
Public instruction, charities, &c.: insufficient education and want of method, the schools all under Jesuits, priests, or nuns, large number of charitable institutions, &c.	569-70

SARGANT (William Lucas). *On the Progress of Elementary Education*

Reference summary of conclusions arrived at in the paper	80-82
Notice of the numerous reports and papers on education in the earlier volumes of the Society's <i>Journal</i> up to 1850	82-3
Reason why private schools for the poor are less numerous at the west than at the east end of London	83-4
Statistics of the school attendance at Manchester	84-5
The earlier removal of children from school than formerly accounted for	85
Marriage registers, the best means of obtaining the comparative numbers of adults who can write, and their irregularities not an obstacle to comparison	86-7
— not less trustworthy than other registers on which we base our statistics	87
Subsidiary statistics from recruiting officers' and criminal returns	88
80 per cent. among men, and 70 among women, in 1864, who could write	89
Objectionable excess and error of Professor Fawcett's dictum of the hopeless ignorance of agricultural labourers	89
90 per cent. men and 80 women who could write, in Scotland, in 1855	89
Statement of progress since 1753, greater in the country than in the towns, and its causes	90-91
Improvement since 1760, about 50 per cent.	91
— averages of, since 1839	92
Comparison with foreign countries, Prussia: untrustworthy character of some of the statements as to the high education of the Prussian people	93-4
— evidence afforded by Mr. Kay, H. de Sybel, Wittich, and Hebel on ditto	94-5
— ditto by Grant Duff, showing that the school education is comparatively stifled by the torpidity of social life in Prussia	95-6
Average school attendance in the United States and in European countries about 1840	97
Average number of letters written to each 1,000 persons in different countries	98
Spain, ignorance among its municipal councillors and mayors	99
Italy, qualifications of the apparently frightful statement that 17 millions out of nearly 22 millions are unable to read or write	99
France, notices from the report of the Education Commission, of the disappearance of schools under the revolution of 1789, and their gradual increase since the restoration in 1816, insufficiency of salaries of teachers, &c.	99-100
— signatures to marriage registers less in France than in England	101
— effect of Napoleon's wars in hindering instruction	102
South America, advanced state of education in the South American Republics	102
United States, expenses of "common schools" defrayed from the State treasuries, and expenditure equal to 4s. 3d. per head of the population	103
— Statistics of the "common schools" and their funds in Maine	104-5
— wisdom of the American provision of a self-acting process for supply of instruction opposed to the grudgingly voted funds of our Parliament	105-6
Comparison of various parts of England: the Poor Law divisions, counties	106-7
— great towns, London districts	108-9
— town and country; the country not inferior to the town, and Professor Fawcett's statements untenable	109-11
Sunday schools, no actual educational progress from	112
Comparison of the sexes	111-12
Privy Council, progress from its excellent system	113
Revised code, its beneficial effects in encouraging the education of all up to a certain level	113
Privy Council Committee of Education, annual expenditure 1839-65, and schools inspected, with average attendance	114-15
Statements as to the poverty of families in Manchester and Liverpool, showing that compulsory would at the same time be free education	115-16
The half-time system, details of, and its efficiency as a security against bodily deterioration from over work	117-18
— not a failure as stated by Mr. Redgrave in 1857	119
General advance of motives for, and means of, education since 1855	120
Compulsory education, difficulties attending it, unless free, and suggestion for overcoming the difficulty of its expense	122-5
Note by Mr. Hammick of the non-parochial registers of marriages in the General Register Office	125-6

	PAGE
SARGANT (William Lucas). <i>Elementary Education—contd.</i>	
<i>Tables.</i> Marks in signing marriage registers	127-8
— "common schools" in the United States	128
— marks in signing marriage registers, 1840, 1851, and 1863, in counties, towns, and London districts	129-136
— education of petty officers, seamen, &c., in the navy, 1865	137
SCHOOL ATTENDANCE, average in the United States and in European countries, about 1840	97
SCHOOLS of Manchester, statistics of attendance at	84-5
(ENDOWED GRAMMAR), large revenues, &c.	558
(SUNDAY), no actual educational progress from	112
in France, their disappearance under the revolution of 1789, and gradual increase since the restoration in 1816	99-100
in Turkey, <i>tables</i> of numbers of, and of scholars	529-31
ditto, grammar, their increase since 1849, &c.	515-16
ditto, village	507-9
ditto, Orthodox or Greek Church	521-3
ditto, Armenian, Latin, Jewish, Protestant, &c.	523-6
(COMMON), of the United States, expenses of, defrayed from the State treasuries to the extent of 4s. 3d. per head of the population, statistics, &c.	103-5 128
see <i>Education</i> .	
SHIPPING (British), vessels and tonnage.	
foreign trade, United Kingdom :	
Jan.—Dec., 1863-66	204
Jan.—June, 1864-67	487
Jan.—March, 1864-67	367
Jan.—Sept., „	598
SHIPWRECKS. <i>The Causes of Wrecks</i> [from the "Saturday Review"]	572
Shipping disasters mostly due to avoidable causes; collisions, and unseaworthiness; cupidity of owners who send out ships little better than floating coffins; foolhardiness of sailors, &c.	572-4
SILVAGNI'S (Signor) Memoir on the Roman States, see <i>Rome</i> .	
Silver, large fluctuations in value of, in China, caused by speculators in it	64
SOLDIERS, height of French, 1 metre 55 centimetres	238
STATISTICAL CONGRESS, discussions on judicial statistics at, in 1860	378
STATISTICAL SOCIETY, (The).	
anniversary meeting and report,—thirty-third, 1866-67	211
list of papers read, 1866-67	212
abstract of receipts and payments	214
proceedings, ordinary meetings, first to eighth, 1866-67	564
STATISTICAL SOCIETY of Manchester, memorial of, see <i>Registration</i> .	
STATISTICAL (CENTRAL) COMMISSION, of Austria, analysis of its report for 1866 (see <i>Newmarch</i>)	323
STATISTICS, intermediate character of, between moral and physical science	495
advantages derived from different sections of	498-9
necessity for handbooks of	500
STRIKES and Combinations, with reference to wages (see <i>Waley</i>)	1
summary of sources of information on their history	2-4
STRIKE of the amalgamated society of engineers in 1851, history of its progress	9-10
at Preston, 1853-54	11-13
of building trades in London, 1859-60, for day of nine hours	14-15
of flint glass makers, in 1858-59	16
in Staffordshire iron trade and potteries, 1865-66	16
in the midland hosiery trade in the last half century	548
establishment of a board of arbitration in 1860 to check disputes, its valuable action	550-53
SUICIDES, annual numbers 1858-65, analysis of modes of, &c.	401-2

	PAGE
SYKES (Colonel W. H.). <i>Free Trade in Banking</i>	58
Account of the attempts at founding a bank and the issue of "shinplasters" by W. Wells Brown, an escaped slave (in Monroe, Michigan)	58-9
System of note issuing by commercial establishments and retail shops in Manchouria, in Tartary, and difficult mode of obtaining "cash" for them	60-61
Account of the system of banking in China, from Justice Doolittle's "Social Life of the Chinese"	61-7
— ingenious mode adopted to prevent counterfeiting	62
— the complete gutting of banks by thieves under pretence of being creditors with bills that the bank cannot redeem	63
— the effect of the instant execution of two plunderers in stopping this plundering of banks	63
— mode of stopping runs on banks by posting of placards that they will "hereafter pay"	64
— large fluctuations in the value of silver, caused by the speculators in it	64
— money-lending clubs without interest, their modes of payment and repayment	65-6
SYKES (Colonel W. H.). <i>Statistics of Sums Given by Native Gentry in India for Charitable and Educational Institutions, and for Works of Public Utility</i>	535
Spontaneous and princely liberality of the rich Parsees, Hindoos, Jains, Mahomedans, &c.	535
Table of gifts for educational, hospital, and other public purposes, 1862-63	536
Subscription list for the Madras weavers, gift to Prince and Princess of Wales, lifeboat in England, &c.	537-9
Lists of native benefactions showing individual munificence, 1863	540-44
Donations since the plethora of money from success in the cotton speculations	545-6
Donations for female schools, and education of females, contrary to their ancestral prejudices	546-7
THUGS, The, of India, their murders, &c.	34-5
TRADE of United Kingdom, exports and imports, 1864-66	{ 200-201 364, 484
see <i>Exports, Imports</i> .	
TRADE AND COMMERCE of the Roman States	568
TRADE UNIONS (Foreign) [from the "Economist"] unknown in Russia, Portugal, Denmark, Sweden, and Sicily, and suppressed in Austria and Prussia; laws against, and police restrictions in France; number of strikes in Italy, &c.	459-61
see <i>Strikes</i> .	
TURKEY, see <i>Education in</i> .	
literatures and languages of the various nationalities of the Turkish empire	509-10
UNITED STATES, prospect of years of poverty and exhaustion yet to come, and financial difficulties to be surmounted	142
UNIVERSITIES, objects of their founders to select from all ranks of society	560
proposal for placing the existing resources of, in a common fund for the United Kingdom	560
VESSELS, see <i>Shipping</i> .	
VIENNA, consumption of food, &c., in, per head of population	324
WAGES, on strikes and combinations with reference to (see <i>Waley</i>)	1
"WAGES AND CAPITAL, Catechism of," by Dr. John Watts	454
WALEY (Jacob). <i>On Strikes and Combinations with Reference to Wages and the Conditions of Labour</i>	1
Repeal of the Combination Laws in 1824, and present state of the law as to meetings of workmen, &c.	1-2
The same laws in France repealed in 1864, subject however to the law against meetings of above twenty persons	2
Summary of the principal sources of information for the study of the history of recent strikes	2-4
Differences of opinion as to the effects of strikes on wages	4-5

	PAGE
WALEY (Jacob). <i>On Strikes and Combinations—contd.</i>	
Great increase of the building, coal, and iron trades, notwithstanding strikes.	6
Question as to wages being sometimes raised without strikes	7
Cases of strikes against machinery and irritating trade practices	8
Strike of the amalgamated society of engineers in 1851, history of its progress, 1851-52	9-10
Preston strike of 1853-54, its progress and termination	11-13
Strike of the building trades, in London, 1859-60, for the day of nine hours' work	14-15
Strike of the flint-glass makers in 1858-59, for restriction of apprentices	16
Strike in Staffordshire iron trade and potteries in 1865-66	16
Strike of the north country iron trade; improvidence of highly-paid workmen	17
Loss and misery attendant on all strikes	17
Proposed establishment of courts of conciliation, and of industrial partnerships of capitalists and workmen	18
Conclusions in accordance with preceding facts, as to the proper duties of trades unions and as to when strikes are permissible	19-20
WATTS (Dr. John), "Catechism of Wages and Capital," extracts from	454
WEATHER, see <i>Meteorology</i> .	
WOMEN, great increase in the proportion of, who work for their own livelihood	70
evils concurrent with this increase, infant mortality, illegitimacy, &c.	72-3
WORTHINGTON (Rev. A. W.). <i>On the Unequal Proportion between the Male and Female Population of some Manufacturing and other Towns</i>	68
Statement of the excess of male births as neutralised by excess of deaths from their exposure to dangers, &c.	68
Excess of males in mining counties and towns and of females in manufacturing counties	68-9
Excess of females in watering places and seaport towns	69
Birmingham a peculiar case, its population consisting of the average number of males and females	70
Excess of females in manufacturing towns, coincident with increase of machinery	70
Great increase in the proportion of women who work for their own livelihood	70
Beneficial effects of their employment as domestic servants	71
Proportions of them in other classes of labour	71
Evils concurrent with this increase of female employment; infant mortality, illegitimacy, &c.	72-3
Proportions of illegitimacy in different towns, infanticide, and criminal abortion	74 5
Early marriages	75
Statistics of crime; freedom of the female spinners from crime	75
— evils not necessarily connected with the factory system, and power of legislation to cure them	76-7
Table of male and female births and deaths, illegitimacy, marriage of female minors, &c.	78
WRECKS, see <i>Shipwrecks</i> .	



